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**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INTEGRITY TRAINING PROGRAMME  
AT ROYAL MALAYSIA POLICE**

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## ABSTRACT

One of the key issues for Malaysian companies is the training and development of their employees. Training plays an important role in providing the necessary skills and knowledge to employees so that their competencies can be improved. Therefore, the training provided should be effective so that the knowledge, skills and attitude learnt can be applied to the job. The purpose of this study was to identify the factors that affect the Integrity Training Programme for police officer of Royal Malaysia Police (RMP). The study found that the factor such as training design was the only factors that affect the training effectiveness on ethical behavior at workplace of Integrity Training Programme at RMP while other factors such as trainee characteristics and work environment were immaterial. The results also indicated that trainee characteristics, training design and work environment had a positive relationship and significant with training effectiveness at behavioral level of the Kirkpatrick model. This study has made some important contributions to the training literature on the enforcement body in Malaysia.

**Keywords:** training effectiveness, Kirkpatrick's Training Model, Royal Malaysia Police (RMP), ethical behavior



## ABSTRAK

Salah satu isu utama bagi sesebuah syarikat di Malaysia ialah melatih dan membangunkan pekerjaanya. Menyediakan latihan amat penting kerana melatih pekerja untuk menambah kemahiran, pengetahuan dan mengubah sikap serta taraf kompetensi pekerja tersebut. Oleh itu, latihan yang diberikan haruslah berkesan supaya pengetahuan dan kemahiran yang diperoleh boleh digunakan semasa bekerja. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenalpasti faktor-faktor yang menyumbang kepada keberkesanan Program Latihan Integriti di Polis Diraja Malaysia (PDRM). Hasil kajian telah mendapati bahawa reka bentuk latihan merupakan faktor penyebab kepada keberkesanan latihan integriti yang membawa kepada perubahan tingkah laku beretika di PDRM. Manakala faktor-faktor lain seperti ciri-ciri pelatih dan persekitaran kerja bukanlah faktor utama dan penyebab kepada keberkesanan latihan tersebut. Hasil kajian juga mendapati bahawa faktor-faktor seperti ciri-ciri pelatih, rekabentuk latihan dan persekitaran kerja mempunyai hubungan yang positif dan signifikan dengan keberkesanan latihan pada aras tingkah laku mengikut Model Kirkpatrick. Kajian telah menyumbang kepada penambahan literatur terutama dalam agensi penguatkuasaan di Malaysia.

**Katakunci:** keberkesanan latihan, Model Kirkpatrick, Polis Diraja Malaysia (PDRM), tingkah laku beretika



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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of integrity training programme at Royal Malaysia Police (RMP). This chapter comprises of the background of the study, problem statement, research questions and research objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, operational definition variables and organization of the study.

#### **1.2 Background of the Study**

In the era of globalization, the importance of training and development activities became the main weapon in the development of trained manpower resources and competitive. The continuous of training and development activities are not only interested to meet promotion requirements of the workers, but also be valuable to the organization's investment to produce the workers globally competitive.(Irmawati Norazaman & Siti Aisyah Panatik Abdul Rahman & Jr, 2013).

Definition of training described by Noe (2010) which states training as planned by the organization's efforts to assist employee provide the impression that the efficiency of training activities enables employees to acquire competencies in performing assigned tasks adequately. Competencies that include knowledge, skills or behaviors then be

used for successful job performance. In addition, Buckley and Caple (2008) defined training as a planned and systematic effort in order to modify or develop employee knowledge, skill or attitude through learning experience. The advantages arising from improvement of work behavior and employee performance will have an impact on organizational performance indirectly. As a result, organization profit will increase and expenses for training activities deemed worthwhile. The conditions then will be creating competitive advantage to the organization.

Training is a key strategy for human resource development, generating new skills in people and in achieving organizational objectives (Rehmat, Aaltio, Agha, & Khan, 2015). Training can be defined as “the systematic acquisition of skills, concepts, or attitudes that must result in improved performance of the trainee” (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Aamdot, 2012). Employees/ workforce need to acquire special skills and knowledge appropriate to perform job as per desired standards and training programs are developed to help them achieve those desired targets. Training has many benefits and hence, is becoming a billion-dollar industry worldwide.

According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), only ten percent of training has typically been transferred in the work environment. Brown and Van Buren (2007) reported that organizations should only invest in training that produces a positive result and provides a return on investment. Bhatti and Kaur (2009) reported that despite problems with training, it was still needed to improve organizational and employee productivity. Investing in training and development opened new markets for organizations to reposition themselves in the organizational marketplace. Kauffeld and Lehmann Willenbrock (2010), reported that organizations were spending substantial sums of

money for staff development. The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) (2017) reported that organizations in the United States spent \$1,273 per employee in 2016 on direct learning expenditure, compared with \$1,252 in 2015. Confirming organizations' commitment to learning, the average number of formal learning hours used per employee also grew, reaching 34.1 hours in 2016, up from 33.5 hours in 2015. In fact, this is the fourth year in a row that has seen an increase in both the direct learning expenditure and the number of learning hours per employee.

Training and development have taken place in most organizations. They can be achieved through many different methods and stages. Designing, implementation, and evaluation should all be stages in the training process (Broad, 2005). Yamnill and McLean (2005) reported that training transfer to the actual job occurred best when knowledge, content, and materials were comparable to work settings.

In the context of Malaysia as a developing country, providing a range of training and development activities through a variety of policies implemented by the government with a high amount of the provision. For instance, in the public sector itself, Service Circular 2005 Public Service Department sets a minimum of seven days of training per year per employee. It is also reinforced by the activities of training and development in the public service to be taking place as an event (Haslinda & Mahyuddin, 2009).

Nevertheless, the efforts and investments undertaken will be futile without the application of acquired competencies to the workplace. The lack of information on effectiveness is problematic because public resources are spent on civil servant training programmes. The use of public resources can be legitimized only when the training is a vehicle to implement public goals and benefit public organizations.

Therefore, we need to prove that our trainings effectively implement their objectives by collecting reliable information on the implementation in order to learn from it and be able to continuously improve performance of our training activities. This means that we need to use evaluation for validation (i.e. producing sound proof for effective impact) and also as a performance management tool to continuously improve the training effectiveness.

Therefore, the application of the knowledge, skills and abilities learned during the training should be used whenever possible when the employee returns to work. The application of learning during training to the workplace commonly known as the “transfer of training”, “transfer of learning”, “training transfer”, “learning transfer” or “transfer” which is considered or perceived as one interchangeable terms in the field of HRD (Chen, et.al. 2005; Shahril 2008; Raja Suzana & Shariffah, 2011). However, this research will use the term of “learning transfer” to refer the application of knowledge or skills and changing of behavior after training at the workplace.

This research also focused on the effectiveness of integrity training programme among police officers at Royal Malaysia Police (RMP), because police deviance has serious social consequences including a decline in public support for police, loss of trust in the rule of law, and a general mistrust of police (Mathenge, 2014). The integrity in policing is fundamentally important for maintaining legitimacy with the public given that the police are empowered in democratic societies to protect individual liberties and uphold the law in a fair and impartial manner (Rosenbaum, 2016).



### 1.3 Overview of RMP

The RMP plays a fundamental role in protecting the Malaysia and its national security interests—its survival as a nation. The RMP is a (primarily) uniformed federal police force in Malaysia. The force is a centralized organization. The police force is led by an Inspector-General of Police (IGP).

The constitution, control, employment, recruitment, funding, discipline, duties and powers of the police force are specified and governed by the Police Act 1967. In carrying out its responsibilities, the regular RMP is also assisted by a support group of extra police constables, police volunteer reserves, auxiliary police, police cadets and a civilian service element.

According to Section 3 (3) Police Act 1967 stipulates that the duties of the Royal Malaysia Police personnel are as follows:

- Apprehending all persons whom he is by law authorized to apprehend;
- Processing security intelligence;
- Conducting prosecutions;
- Giving assistance in the carrying out of any law relating to revenue, excise, sanitation, quarantine, immigration and registration;
- Giving assistance in the preservation of order in the ports, harbors and airports of Malaysia, and in enforcing maritime and port regulations;
- Executing summonses, subpoenas, warrants, commitments and other process lawfully issued by any competent authority;
- Exhibiting information;

- Protecting unclaimed and lost property and finding the owners thereof;
- Seizing stray animals and placing them in a public pound;
- Giving assistance in the protection of life and property;
- Protecting public property from loss or injury;
- Attending the criminal courts and, if specially ordered, the civil courts, and keeping order therein; and
- Escorting and guarding prisoners and other persons in the custody of the police.

The RMP have ten departments: Management Department, Strategic Resources & Technology Department, Criminal Investigation Department, Narcotics Criminal Investigation Department, Commercial Crimes Investigation Department, Special Branch, Crime Prevention and Community Safety Department, Internal Security and Public Order Department, Integrity and Standards Compliance Department, Traffic Enforcement and Investigation Department.

Some of the efforts to enhance the integrity of RMP officers are

- the use of the "Integrity is Our Practice" badge;
- establishment of the Integrity and Compliance Department (JIPS);
- 'hot post' work rotations;
- the implementation of the Information Notifier Protection Act (APPM) 2010;
- RMP integrity communication system;
- disciplinary and narcotics control schemes;
- control mechanism of assets of officers of PDRM;
- the implementation of Public Officer Regulations (Conduct and Discipline) 1993;

- renewal of task systems and work procedures.

The setting up of JIPS have made improvements on implementation of integrity values among RMP officers. Besides, JIPS is also responsible for organizing integrity training programme to RMP officers (Megat Ayop & Abd. Halim, 2016).

The RMP integrity training programme is designed to focus on avoiding conflicts of interest, with a special emphasis on the acceptance of gifts, proper use of government resources, government employment of rules and regulation, travel and transportation limitations (Asencio, Byrne, & Mujkic, 2017). They organize a 3-days training programme to educate integrity among RMP officers. The training is conducted twice in a year and the trainees are nominated by head of departments.

#### **1.4 Problem Statement**

The main component of a successful training is to measure the effectiveness of the training. However, not many companies have evaluated the effectiveness of their training and this has become a big challenge for the company nowadays. Certain companies feel that training in itself is expensive and by adding other components may add to the overall cost. The performance of the staff would tell a lot about the effectiveness of the training.

Training should be coordinated with the purpose and in line with the job scope and responsibilities. The company believes that training can contribute to its success. Because of that, the company has spent a huge amount of money for the employees to attend training every year.

Training can enhance the performance of the employees by improving their knowledge, skills and abilities. Hence the employees can do their job with passion and commitment with the right work behavior. However, some of them do not have a clear picture of what training is all about and cannot apply what has been taught in training to their jobs.

Recently, unethical misconduct among government officers have been a major concern both in developed as well as developing countries. Government servant such as police officer can easily abuse their powers or exploit their position for personal gains which subsequently will tarnish the image of the public sector as a whole. (Bakri, Said, & Karim, 2015)

According to (Bradshaw, 2013). training is an essential element of a corporate ethics programme. Failing to train staff in the importance of ethical values and how to apply them leaves companies open to integrity risks and reputational damage. Yet, Institute of Business Ethics (IBE) research has found that only 62 per cent of United Kingdom employees report receiving any training on standards of ethical conduct, even though those businesses that train their staff to understand and implement codes of ethics were found over the long term to outperform financially those that do not.

Many efforts have been taken by the government in order to ensure that all of the employees work with high integrity, thus reducing the number of fraud occurrence in the public sector office. Similarly, police officers are entrusted with a special authority and power that can have a significant influence on many aspects of individual's lives (Sellbom, Fischler & BenPorath, 2007). Police officer can easily abuse their power or exploit their position for personal gains. In accordance with that ranking, four case

scenarios (off-duty security business, accepting free meals and discounts on the beat, excepting holiday gifts, and cover-up of police DUI) were considered least serious while other case scenarios (bribes from a speeding motorist, crime scene and use of excessive force) were considered most serious among police officers (Mathenge, 2014). Debate about the integrity of police officers have become a major concern due to high cases of unethical misconduct of police officers (Klockars, Ivkovich, & Haberfeld, 2006).

In Malaysia, the Auditor General Report in 2012 has reported that 309 units of assets worth RM1.33 million were reported missing from the period of 2010 to 2012 in Royal Malaysian Police. The main categories of asset lost were 156 units of handcuffs, followed by 44 units of firearms and 29 units of vehicles. These numbers show that asset misappropriation is the most common fraudulent activity that occurs in public sector, and the mismanagement of the asset takes a high number which resulted in loss to the government. It also appears that there is a weak integrity among the RMP officers, leading to the mismanagement of those assets. Meanwhile, according to the 2016 Audit Report there were irregularities found in the purchase of two police helicopter by RMP.

Similarly, Enforcement Agency Integrity Commission Annual Report in 2015, 2016 and 2017 show that many government agencies have weak integrity behavior which leads to the misconduct and abuse of their power. The results also show that Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) takes the highest number (more than 50%) in three years, (2015, 2016, and 2017) which had been investigated regarding the misconduct and abuse of power. Given the large scale impact of police misconduct it is imperative that

a study should assess the current level of integrity among police officers. Policing in a democracy requires high levels of integrity if it is to be acceptable to the people (Mathenge, 2014).

In order to improve the ethical behavior of its officers, RMP has spent a huge amount of money for integrity training programme. The allocation for training has been increased from year to year. However, a study on the effectiveness of the training programmes has never been conducted. Because of that, the researcher does not know whether the training programmes that have been conducted are changing their ethical work behavior, also to measure the benefits of the training programmes to the officers and the relevance of their training programmes to their jobs. Trainee characteristic, training design and work environment is an essential part in order to ensure the effectiveness of the training programmes.

Furthermore, there are very few empirical studies available with respect to the factors that may influence the effectiveness of integrity training programme. Most writers on the subject assume that the design and contents of a program affect its effectiveness (Van Montfort, Beck, & Twijnstra, 2013).

Thus, this study was conducted to look into the factors of effectiveness integrity training programme by three independent variables that were taken into consideration namely trainee characteristics, training design and work environment.

## **1.5 Research Questions**

Based on the problem statement, the research attempts to answer the following questions:

- a) Is there a relationship between trainee characteristics and training effectiveness?
- b) Is there a relationship between training design and training effectiveness?
- c) Is there a relationship between work environment and training effectiveness?

## **1.6 Research Objectives**

The broad aim of this research is to examine the factors of training effectiveness of Royal Malaysia Police officers.

Specifically, the study is expected to determine:

- a) The relationship between trainee characteristics and training effectiveness.
- b) The relationship between training design and training effectiveness.
- c) The relationship between work environment and training effectiveness.

## **1.7 Significance of the Study**

This research intends to explain the factors of the trainee characteristics, training design and working environment on the training effectiveness of Integrity Training Programme at Royal Malaysia Police. The finding of this research can be useful for the organization to take potential steps in designing such training programme. Some

of the methods in the training design could also be upgraded to enhance its efficiently as expected by the trainees.

The JIPS must start to look for the best method to enhance integrity level of the staff to carry out the work today and train them for meeting tomorrow's goals. Training and development practices at company should boost up performance and develop the skills, knowledge and abilities of the employees by increasing the integrity level among them. The objective of training is to build up right ability and capability in the labor force so that employees can perform to meet the standards, needs of the company and expected the good return for the employer.

In RMP, Integrity Training Programme parked under JIPS is responsible for conducting training to all staff. Some of the training is conducted either internal or external. Most of the session conducted involved external consultant comes from various background and discipline. The finding of this study is useful for the Top Management of RMP to improve areas on Training and Development. RMP also can take corrective action also to rectify the factor that contributes to the ineffectiveness of the training.

### **1.8 Scope of the Study**

This research, aims to determine factors that affect the training effectiveness of Integrity Training Programme at RMP among 200 staff at JIPS. It involved three independent variables namely as trainee characteristics, training design and working environment while dependent variable is only involved training effectiveness.



## **1.9 Definition of Key Terms**

For the purpose of this research, below are the terms that are being used in this study:

### **1.9.1 Training Effectiveness**

Training effectiveness refers to the processes that occur before, during and after training to increase the likelihood that it will have an impact to ethical behavior at workplace.

### **1.9.2 Trainee Characteristics**

Trainee characteristics refers to individual attributes that differentiate one-person from others.

### **1.9.3 Training Design**

Training design is the process of creating a blueprint for the development of instruction. Whether the training is to be conducted in a classroom, delivered using an electronic format or using some combination of methods, the design process sets the stage for the development of a programme that produced results.

#### **1.9.4 Working Environment**

In general work environment is defined as anything that is related to work that occur outside the training environment but can influence transfer of training (Burke & Hutchins, 2008). For the purpose of this study, work environment refers to the RMP supervisor support, peer support and organizational support.

#### **1.10 Organization of the Thesis**

This report consists of five chapters. Chapter one provides an overall picture of the study, including the background of the study, the problem statement, the objectives and the scope of the study. Chapter two focuses more on the conceptual framework which is applied in this study. It also comprises the theories and literature review on training effectiveness, training evaluation, trainee characteristics, training design, work environment and the relation of trainee characteristics, training design, work environment on training effectiveness, Chapter three explores the methodology used in this study, the respondents, the research instruments and data collection. Next, the findings analyses are discussed in chapter four. Finally, chapter five summarizes the discussion of the data.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The chapter contains discussion on the definition training, the factors that affect training effectiveness, approaches to training evaluation, evaluation models, different levels of training evaluation, and how to measure the training effectiveness.

#### **2.2 Ethical Behavior at Workplace**

Ethical behavior (Murphy & Kiffin-Petersen, 2017) is used broadly herewith to encompass both unethical behaviors that are contrary to accepted moral standards in society (e.g., lying, cheating, stealing, harassment) as well as routine ethical behaviors needed to meet the required minimum standards for human decency (e.g., respectful treatment of others, honesty) (Jennings et al. 2015; Treviño et al. 2006; Treviño et al. 2014).

According to (Treviño, den Nieuwenboer & Kish-Gephart, 2014), ethical behavior in organizations refers to the study of ethical and unethical decisions and behavior in an organizational context, especially in a work context. Drawing on an earlier review by Trevino and colleagues (2006), behavioral ethics researchers have, for the most part, studied three types of related outcomes: unethical behavior that is contrary to accepted

moral norms in society(e.g., lying, cheating, stealing); routine ethical behavior that meets the minimum moral standards of society (e.g., honesty, treating people with respect); and extraordinary ethical behavior that goes beyond society's moral minima(e.g., charitable giving, whistleblowing).

In addition, following Tenbrunsel & SmithCrowe (2008), actions need not be intentional in order to qualify as ethical or unethical. Finally, it is important to note that, although research on ethical behavior in organizations rests upon a social scientific base, the study of ethical behavior in organizations is far from value free. Most research in the field begins with the premise that ethical behavior in organizations is good and unethical behavior is bad, and that understanding the predictors of each can help organizations produce more of the former and less of the latter. Some overlap exists in the above definitions of outcome variables with organizational behavior research on extra role behavior (e.g., helping, voice) and deviance (e.g., theft). Although more work is needed to bring these overlapping literatures together (Treviño et al. 2006), the major distinction between these topic areas is that research on (un)ethical behavior focuses on behavior that is consistent or inconsistent with societal norms whereas the research on extra role behavior and deviance focuses on behavior that is consistent or inconsistent with organizational norms. For example, behavior may be considered deviant (contrary to organizational norms) while being consistent with societal norms (e.g., external whistle blowing), or a behavior may be consistent with an organizational norm while being inconsistent with societal norms (e.g., deceiving customers).

### **2.2.1 Police Ethics**

Terrance and Cox III (2005) conducted a study on police ethics: organizational implications note that law enforcement organizations must embrace ethics as a critical tool for effective decision making. An ethical agenda in ethic's and integrity training for officers begin at the academy, but it is more than simply adding more hours of classes on integrity (Mathenge, 2014). It begins by emphasizing the importance of judgment and decision making equal to the need to be a physical presence in the community. Ethical practice must be reinforced in the workplace. The culture of being above the law ends only when organizational leaders enforce rules against corrupt behavior and then recognize the right behavior (Githui 2012).

Adebayo (2006) discusses ethical attitudes and pro-social behavior in the Nigerian police using multiple regression analyses. A total of 163 of the Nigerian police force represented the sample size of the study. In this study, results indicated an opposite relationship between unethical attitudes and pro-social behavior among police officers with high or average levels perceived organizational support and public recognition, while among police officers with low levels perceived organizational support and public recognition there was a positive relationship between unethical attitudes and the pro-social behavior.

(Dowie 2009) discusses ethics and integrity in the Hong Kong police force and realized the importance of promoting ethical standards to the police members in the fight against corruption at every level, because without ethical values, everything the police are doing is a flaw. Dowie stated that the Hong Kong police force expects all members

to be aware of the need to comply with the forces values. Therefore, the police have sought to embed ethics and police integrity as core policing philosophies throughout the entire organization. Also, to reduce the risk of corruption Hong Kong police force had encouraged all the officers to report any suspected malpractice and corruption involving other members of the police force. Officers making such reports will be encouraged to avail themselves of the service of a support officer, who will be assigned to provide moral and practical support.

An analysis conducted by Westmarland, 2010 on data collected from a survey of police officers who were asked about their attitudes towards police corruption, unethical behavior and minor infringements of police rules. The study found that most of the officers regarded on certain actions, such as those involving the acquisition of goods or money, as much worse than behavior involving illegal brutality or bending of rules in order to protect colleagues from criminal proceedings. Moreover, officers view acquisitive crime such as taking money or property as very serious and not acceptable, even if the amount of money is relatively small, such as in the case of the late serving pub, illicit speeding fine or repair shop backhanders. This is the behavior they would be quite likely to report on. Other behaviors, such as excessive force and bending the law to protect a drunk driving colleague which is considered as serious, but they would be less likely to report on it than some of the larger financially rewarding corrupted behavior.

Current research also suggests that public perception about police susceptibility to unethical behavior as rumors need an empirical support. A very high percentage of the RMP indicated their disapproval of the deviant behavior described in the eleven cases

scenario implies that there are not very likely to get involve in the unacceptable behavior (Bakri et al., 2015).

### **2.2.2 The importance of Integrity**

Integrity concerns the quality level of being honest and having strong moral principles. Various definitions of integrity were found in the literature including Carter (1998) who exhorted that a person with integrity is usually honest, but an honest person may have little integrity due to the demands of integrity being more than honesty. Carter (1998) also mentioned that integrity requires three steps; “discerning what is right and what is wrong, acting on what you have discerned, even at personal cost; and saying openly that you are acting on your understanding of right and wrong”. Integrity can also be defined as “a moral judgment upon an act and is also a judgment upon the character or selfhood of the one doing the act” (Dewey & Tuffs, 1932).

The Malaysian National Integrity Plan (NIP Handbook 2004) defined integrity as a quality of excellence manifested in a holistic and integral manner in individuals and organizations. Abdullah, Salleh, Ismail and Ngah (2010) defined integrity among civil servants as “observant of competency values; committed to address and eliminate corruption; increase the efficiency and effectiveness of organizations either public or private as well as family units and lastly, enhance the social welfare and the quality of life”.

Thus, integrity is a quality of being honest and having good moral judgment either as an individual or as a public servant to eliminate unethical behaviors such as being

corrupt or committing fraud and others illegal activities. In assessing integrity among police officers, a study conducted by Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, Haberfeld (2000) found the corruption of individual police officers reflects their moral defect. They further stressed that integrity and corruption in the police agencies in the United States involves attitudes of serious misconduct and the abuse of police authority for personal gain. Their study also showed that the characteristics of a police agency's culture encourage its employees to tolerate certain types of misconduct such as discouraging a colleague to report on the engagement of unethical behavior (Othman et al., 2014).

Meanwhile, integrity in public administration such as police officer refers to employees' "honesty" or "trustworthiness" in performing their official duties, avoiding "corruption" or "the abuse of office" (Amstrong, 2005). Integrity is an indicator for trust, competence, professionalism, and confidence (Akir, 2012). Having integrity criteria in every person is important in order for the employees to maintain their discipline, following the rules and regulation of the firm as well as being accountable for ones' action. Many studies believe that, integrity among public sector officials, specifically among police officers is needed for them to deliver good service to the public and avoid them from acting fraudulently. This is because, without upholding the ethical values and integrity, everything they do will show flaws. Having integrity among employees in an organization is important in order for the company to prevent their employees from being involved in fraudulent actions. Many studies agree that high level of integrity among the leaders would help the company to avoid any unethical behavior among their employees. Akir (2012) conceptualized integrity into three (3) dimensions, which are prevention, accountability and enforcement.



Another study by Bird (2006) found that there would be some differences among the personality traits that resulted in variations of integrity among employees. The researcher indicated that individuals with high integrity normally have a high intellectual capacity such as being calm, cheerful and having a wide range of interest, while people having low integrity is reported as having unconventional thought processes, being engaged in personal fantasy and denying unpleasant thoughts. Therefore, the behavior of employees could be a sign used by the management to indicate the level of integrity among the employees. Mathenge (2014), discovered that ethics and integrity have strong influence on the corruption cases in the Kenyan Police Agency. Self-administrated questionnaires were distributed to 150 police officers in Kenya. The study proposed that strong enforcement by the organization to uphold the integrity level among the police officers, such as providing ethics classes, training and reviewing of the officers' behavior, as well as creating a high professionalism culture in police department could deter the police officers from being involved in fraudulent behavior (Bakri et al., 2015).

### **2.2.3 HRM and Integrity**

According to the notes of Lisiecka and Papaj (2008) on the Human Capital Programme, good governance can be considered as a tool that raises the potential of public administration in drafting laws and policies, preparing good-quality service delivery, and strengthening partnership. In other words, good governance encompasses advancement in the social aspect management. The principles of good governance must be implemented to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public

administration. Lin, Lee and Tai (2012) showed that human resource approaches contribute substantial and positive effects to market access capabilities, integrity-associated competencies, and functionality-associated competencies of core competencies. Nazlina (2011) mentioned that SMEs must focus on HRM practices to facilitate the achievement of an organization, improve the integrity, and generate innovation.

### **2.3 Definition of Training**

Training has been defined as the trainee's behavioral influential process (Ghosh, Joshi, Satyawadi, Mukherjee, & Ranjan, 2011). It is a tool that allows the organization to survive and causes its persistence. The benefit of it is not limited to the organization, but to the employees as well by accommodating them with the expertise needed to meet the modern advancement in the work fields (Ahmed et al., 2010). It forms one of the methods to save the organization's investments. This is clearly valid in the event that new capabilities gained were applied in the work environment (Griffin, 2011).

Hamblin (1974) defines training as 'any activity that deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill in a job. Flippo (1976) defines training as the act of increasing the knowledge and skills of an employee for doing a particular job. He further states that "no firm has a choice of whether to train or not; the only choice is that of method'. His statement means that the company has to train their employees whether in formal classroom or on-the-job training. There is no such thing for not training because employees need to be trained before they can perform any job. Bramley (1991) defines

training as any organizationally initiated procedures, which are intended to foster learning among organizational members in a direction contributing for organizational effectiveness. He summarizes training as systematic process with some planning and control rather than learning from experience, being concerned with concepts, skills, and attitudes of people treated both as individual and as a member of the various groups, and being intended to improve performance in the present and the following job and through this should enhance the effectiveness on the part of the organization in which the individual or group works.

Training is the effective methods for enhancing the productivity of individual and communicating the aims of organizational to new personnel (Wilfred, Pamela, Suzanne & Winston, 2003).

The definition of training does not change so much from one researcher to another. Noe (2008) defines training as planned effort by a company to facilitate employees' learning of job competencies. These competencies include knowledge, skills and attitude (behavior) that are critical for organizational success. The goal for giving training to employees is to ensure that new skills and knowledge obtained can be applied to day-to-day activities. Upon completion of the training, the participants either applied what they have learnt or just gained knowledge for future job requirements. This definition of training by Noe (2008) is used to report the work in this thesis.

### **2.3.1 Integrity Training Programme**

Integrity training programme are often considered to be a promising instrument to promote the integrity of employees of governmental or private organizations (Bolten and van Rossem 2005, 34–46; Falkenberg and Woiceshyn 2008, 213–217; Hoekstra, Karssing, and Kiebert 2002, 16–19; Jonas and Sassenberg 2006, 709–721; Sims 2002, 393–410; Van Tankeren 2010, 38–39). In the past, such programme were primarily conceived as a useful instrument for integrity based ethics management. Civil servants had to be empowered to recognize and handle ethical dilemmas. Nowadays, integrity training programme are increasingly seen as an important element of compliance-based ethics management. Civil servants are provided with instructions and information intended to influence their behavior directly, and in such a way that it complies with the applicable regulations (Roberts 2009).

Despite the popularity of integrity training programme in the public sector, the presumption that they have positive effects is only to a limited degree supported by empirical data. Until now, little social science research has been carried out on the effectiveness of these programme. The presumed positive effects have hardly been found in practice (De Groot 2007, 7; Delaney and Sockell, 1992, 719; Menzel 1997, 224; Weber 1990, 183; West and Berman 2004, 189).

Furthermore, there are virtually no empirical studies available with respect to the factors that may influence the effectiveness of integrity-training programme. Most writers on the subject assume that the design and contents of a programme affect its effectiveness. The context in which the programme is executed is assumed to be a

relevant factor as well (Alvarez, Salas, and Garofano 2004, 389–391; Felton and Sims 2005, 384; De Groot 2007, 23; Desplaces, Melchar, Beauvais, and Bosco 2007, 76; Ponemon 1996, 66; Treviño, Weaver, Gibson, and Ley 1999, 147; Van Tankeren 2010, 36–38; Weber 2007, 65–67). However, there is little or no empirical evidence for these plausible assumptions.

Against this background, an empirical research project on the effectiveness of integrity training programme and the factors that influence their effectiveness was executed from early 2009 until mid-2010. The project was aimed at answering the following questions: To what extent do integrity training programme yield the desired results? To what extent is their effectiveness influenced by certain features of the programme and certain characteristics of the context in which the programme are executed?

What does integrity of civil servants mean? A civil servant who meets three requirements can be regarded as having integrity: First, awareness of the moral aspects of the given situation. Second, the ability to judge what decision or discussions should be taken in the given situation. Third, action in accordance with the appropriate standards and rules (Beck, Van Montfort, and Twijnstra 2010, 20; De Groot 2007, 41; Huberts 2005, 9; Van Tankeren 2010, 18–20). In keeping with this, three aspects of the concept of integrity were distinguished in the research project: moral awareness (or moral conscience), moral reasoning, and moral behavior.

These three aspects were deduced from the process model of ethical decision making introduced by Rest (1986) and elaborated by Jones (1991). According to this well-known model, making a decision is a staged process whereby an individual first

recognizes a moral issue, then makes a moral judgment about the issue, then establishes an intention to act upon the judgment, and finally takes action in accordance with the intention (Davis and Crane 2003, 80; Jones 1991; Rest 1986).

Government organizations often have an integrity policy to promote and guarantee the integrity of civil servants. One way to implement that policy is by offering integrity training programme. The term “integrity training programme” encompasses a wide range of conceptions and descriptions. The broad definition encompasses a variety of training programme that have as a common denominator the purpose of enhancing the integrity of the trainees. It includes a great number of diverse courses that are all offered nowadays as ethics training programs. The area of organizational design is one in which training programme may differ in several ways. Trainees in a programme can be either voluntary or mandatory. The programme may be provided either by an outsider or by someone from within the organization. Other aspects in which training programme may differ are the occurrence of follow-up activities and the possibility for trainee to introduce practice examples. Finally, programs may also vary in the size of the groups in which trainees are classified (Baldwin and Magjuka 1997; Ponemon 1996; Van Tankeren 2010; Weber 2007).

Training programme are not all equally effective. An effective programme can be defined as one associated with a high degree of purpose attainment that is completely or partially caused by the programme itself (Swanborn 1999, 51, 58–59). The three general purposes of integrity training programme must be taken into account in determining the degree of purpose attainment. Such programme are aimed at increasing the trainees’ moral awareness, improving their level of moral reasoning,

and enhancing the moral quality of their actions (Beck et al. 2010, 22–23; Van Tankeren 2010, 38–39).

According to the literature, a number of factors influence the effectiveness of integrity training programmes. Three categories of influencing factors can be distinguished: individual, organizational, and programmatic (Alvarez et al. 2004, 389; Beck et al. 2010, 23). The first category pertains to characteristics of the participant, namely gender, level of education, and type of position held. The second category relates to the organizational context in which the training program takes place. It concerns the organization's ethical climate, the degree of ethical leadership, the existence of a code of conduct, and the civil servants' knowledge of the contents of the code. The last category of factors that in theory influence the effectiveness of an integrity training programme comprises the characteristics of the training programme. This category pertains to the dimensions already mentioned: the voluntariness of trainees, the origin of the coach, the possibility for trainees to introduce practice examples, the occurrence of follow-up meetings, and the size of the group of trainees (Alvarez et al. 2004, 389; Beck et al. 2010, 23–28).

According to Mathenge (2014), rules play an important role in directing the behavior patterns of employees. In this regard, police administrators and officers in Kenya should periodically engage in regular training to enhance their level of knowledge and comprehension as relates to organizational rules. This will help reduce cases of corruption within the whole agency.

### **2.3.2 Police Integrity Training**

McCormack (1996), among many others, has suggested that it is quite possible to effect behavioral change within organizations as a result of the imposition of strong internal controls which heighten the risk of detection. However, this is far from sufficient and he argues that ‘long-term change depends more upon internalizing new ethical standards’ than it does on a more generally punitive response to misconduct (McCormack, 1996: 245). Both, it appears, are required (Newburn, 2015).

Reforming training of recruits is perhaps the most common response among police agencies attempting to deal with corruption. Goldstein, writing in the 1970s, (Goldstein, 1975) noted that most police training avoided discussion of corruption, and work in the following two decades noted that little appears to have changed (Wood, 1997a; Mollen Commission, 1994). Critical scholarship at the time suggested that even on those occasions when discussion of corruption and ethics did form part of training, it was often done in a manner that was unlikely to resonate with new recruits or make much difference to subsequent behavior (Goldstein, 1975).

Since the mid-1990s this has arguably begun to change – though there remains a long way to go. In the aftermath of the corruption scandal of the 1990s, the New York Police Department put particular emphasis on its new anti-corruption strategy, and this placed a heavy emphasis on ethics and values training for officers, especially those in supervisory positions (Giuliani & Bratton, 1995). The Wood Commission in New South Wales recommended that the teaching of ethics and integrity should be practically integrated in every aspect of police education and training in New South



Wales, from recruitment, through continuing education to management training (1997a: 542).

In the UK, a series of reports has focused very significantly on training. HMIC's (2011) report recommended that: 'Training courses should include appropriate input in relation to integrity and anti-corruption. In particular, given the importance of leadership to securing high standards of integrity, the Strategic Command Course and the High Potential Development Scheme should encompass these issues.' Nevertheless, and illustrating the difficulties encountered in other jurisdictions, the 2012 follow-up report noted that education on integrity issues within forces was 'patchy' and was generally limited to generic training with, for example, only six forces at that stage providing 'well-structured training in relation to gifts and hospitality'. HMIC similarly found training within police authorities to be limited, and often limited to high-level statements rather than detailed policy and procedure. This should all be set against a background of research evidence – albeit still somewhat limited – which suggests that detailed, ongoing in-service training in relation to issues of integrity is vital in corruption control (Klockars et al, 2005; Graycar & Prenzler, 2013).

According to Lim and Sloan (2016), integrated into training regimens for supervisory- and command-level personnel. For example, it appears supervisors' individual sense of integrity and accountability "trumps" loyalty to group norms. Here, agencies could emphasize the importance of individual integrity and reward exemplars during training. By stressing that nothing is more important than individual integrity and accountability, supervisors are reminded they must continually serve as examples to

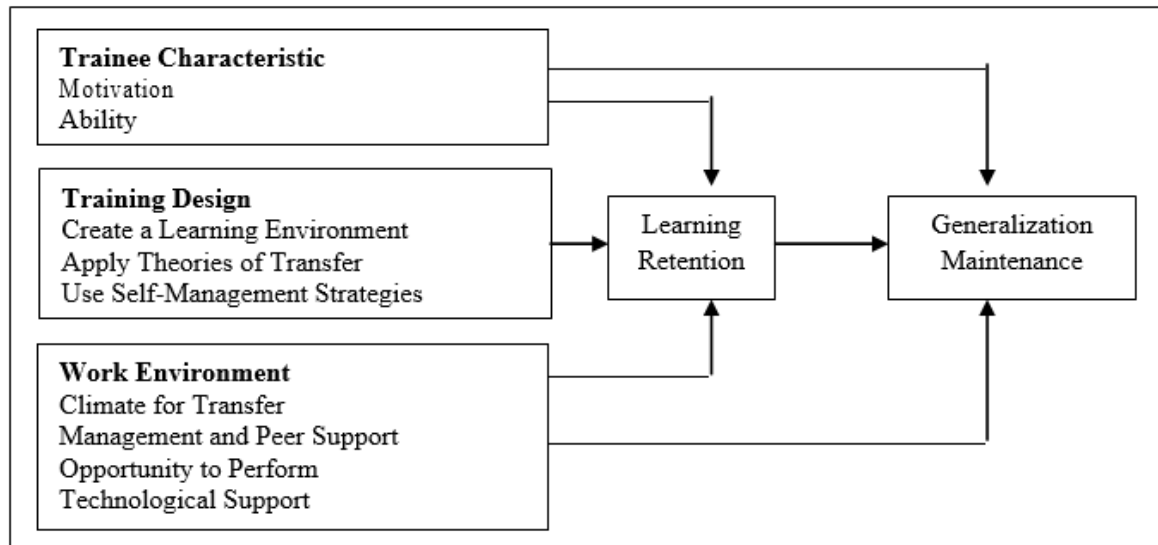
be emulated by those they command. Training regimens could also integrate into curricula the importance of agency climate and strength of discipline and again reward exemplars. Type and size of the agency seem related to integrity and accountability, agency administrators and/or local government officials may, themselves, need training to help them understand how agency size and type “matters” in creating dynamics that enhance (or diminish) officer integrity.

### **2.3.3 Learning Transfer Model**

Research on learning transfer factors is not a recent study in western countries because this area of research is often discussed in the field of HRD. For instance, the study of learning transfer factors has been growing after Baldwin and Ford (1988) review. Therefore, since 1990, Human Resource Development Quarterly (HRDQ) has published at least one referred article associated with learning transfer study (Chen, 2005). Research by Baldwin and Ford (1988) is a good beginning for HRD practitioners and researchers to study the concept of learning transfer and understanding the factors involved. Baldwin and Ford (1988) established a model of learning transfer that consisted of three main factors or constructs influence learning retention, as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

*A model of the Learning Transfer Process (Baldwin and Ford, 1988)*



Early model of the learning transfer process by Baldwin and Ford (1988) provides a guide to the HRD researchers and practitioners toward discussion on three main factors that influence learning transfer, i.e. trainee characteristics, training design and work environment. These three factors act as training inputs to facilitate trainee in achieving training output which known as learning and retention. At the same time, the condition of transfer that included generalization and maintenance assist the employees in their transfer process (Cheng and Ho, 2001).

The first factor is trainee characteristics factor that covered two sub factors which are trainee's motivation and ability towards training. For instance, if trainees have basic skills deficiencies, lack of cognitive ability to master the ability to learn or not motivated and have low self-efficacy in learning, it will affect the learning transfer and will contribute to a low level transfer (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). Research on trainee characteristics factor is also known as cognitive, psychomotor and physical ability

construct that can affect the performance of the transfer task (Holton, et.al. 2000). These factors also influence trainees' motivation to learn and transfer their learning. The role of self-efficacy and motivation to encourage trainee expectations and organizational commitment (Tesluk, et.al. 1995) and work engagement (Noe and Schmitt, 1986) reported the impact varies. Personality traits (Ford and Weissbein, 1997) and goal orientation (Fisher and Ford, 1998) have also been associated with the motivation to apply the competencies.

The second factor that is the training design which is defined as the characteristics of the learning environment that covered learning objectives, meaningful materials, feedback, opportunity to practice, organization and physical features of the training site. Baldwin and Ford (1988) categorized the training design into three sub-factors that involved the application of transfer theories, create learning environments and applications in self-management strategies. Similarly, other researches on training design factors contribute a variety of factors which affect learning transfer. Training design strategies such as general principles (Schunk, 1996), using variable training stimulation, identical element as well as transfer setting strategies (Baldwin, 1992) facilitate in enhancing learning. Besides that, both over-learning and massed-learning as tried and tested conditions of practice also affect transfer in positive way (Enos, et.al, 2003).

Finally, the work environment factors consisted of four dimensions that covered climate for transfer, management and peer support, opportunity to perform and technological support. Transfer climate factors are identified as mediating variables in the relationship between organizational context and work behavior and also with

individual's job attitudes (Holton, et.al., 2000). Conducive training climate can be used to enhance learning in the opportunity to use, supervisor and peer support played a major part (Baldwin and Ford, 1988). The use of technology as a motivating factor to the transfer involves the use of electronic performance support systems (EPSSs) that can provide access to information on the skills they have learned and the advice and guidance of an expert.

The research undertaken by the Baldwin and Ford (1988) encouraged other researchers (e.g. Noe and Ford, 1992; Tannenbaum and Yulk, 1992; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Holton et.al. 1997) to explore research on learning transfer factors. After research by Baldwin and Ford (1988), a conceptual model by Holton et.al. (1997) is often cited and used in research of learning transfer. Holton, et al. (1997; 2000) developed a comprehensive learning transfer model that can be generalized across organizations. At first, Holton (1996) has adapted the instrument by Rouiller and Goldstein (1993) and developed the Concept of Evaluation and Learning Transfer Measurement Model. Then, the process continues in 1997 and in 2000 Holton and his colleagues have developed an instrument known as the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) (Holton, et.al., 1997; 2000).

#### **2.3.4 Training Evaluation**

Hamblin (1974) defines evaluation of training as “any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of a training program and to assess the value of training in the light of the information”. He further stated that one cannot assess training effects

unless one knows something about the before and after the training situation. Productivity level before training programs were implemented can be used as a control for comparison. Many studies have revealed that evaluation is often neglected by the training providers since there is lack of demand for evaluation (Asplund & Salverda, 2004; Giangreco et. al., 2010; Hashim, 2001; Smith & Piper, 1990). Belasco and Trice (1975) have found that less than 1% of the ongoing training programs are systematically evaluated. Randall (1975) identified a group of negativist who claim that evaluation of formal training is either impossible or unnecessary. He felt that a dilemma exists between evaluating for refining purposes or just as a matter of survival (Baron & Morin, 2010).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) define training evaluation as a systematic process of collecting data and information to determine whether the training was effective. One of the most overlooked aspects in training is the evaluation phase (McClelland, 1994). McClelland mentioned that budgetary and other constraints have caused many trainers and instructional designers to employ standardized, commercially available evaluation instruments that pose many disadvantages. Among the disadvantages mentioned by McClelland is that standardized instruments are neither comprehensive nor focused on critical content areas that would be either necessary or desirable. Training evaluation should be considered before the actual training occurs (Gilbert, 2005; Grove & Ostroff, 1990; Kirkpatrick, 2005). The evaluation process should begin with the determination of training needs. Needs assessment helps to identify what knowledge, skills, behavior, or other learned capabilities are needed. Once the learned capabilities are identified,

the next step in the process is to identify specific, measurable training objectives to guide the program (Gilbert, 2005; Halopainen & Bjorkman, 2005).

Wigley (1988) defines evaluation as "a data reduction process that involves the collection of large amounts of data which are analyzed and synthesized into an overall judgment of worth or merit". The implication here is that the judgment of worth can be supported by the data. In her review, Foxon (1989) found similar definitions referring to judgments of "value or worth". What is not clear in any of the definitions offered is what is entailed in the criteria of worth. It has been suggested that a major problem in arriving at a definition of evaluation is confusion with related terms such as measurement, assessment and validation (Foxon, 1989; Giangreco et. al., 2010).

Tony (1996) defines evaluation as the systematic collection of descriptive and judgmental information necessary to make effective decision related to the selection, adoption, value and modification on various instrumentation activities. On the other hand, Leslie (1997) defines evaluation as the assessment of the total value of a training system training course or program in social as well as financial terms.

In summary, the definition of evaluations by Tony (1996) and Leslie (1997) are used in this research work. This is because evaluation involves analytical process of collection of data. It is also involved the evaluation of cost-benefit analysis after the training program been conducted. The overall aim of evaluation is to influence decisions about the need for the program in the future; the need for modifications to the program; and the need to provide cost/benefit data about the program.

### 2.3.5 Training Evaluation Models

To identify whether the objectives of the training is achieved by evaluation, the contemporary model calls for evaluation at various stages and thus allows for feedback throughout the training process and not just at the end. Since the introduction of Tyler's (1942) evaluation model many other models have emerged, each reflecting the evaluation requirements of its time. McCoy and Hargie (2001) list some existing models: goal-free evaluation (Scriven, 1967); Campbell's (1969) scientific approach; illuminative evaluation (Parlett & Hamilton, 1977); utilization-focused evaluation (Patton, 1986); the responsive mode that takes into account environmental and stakeholders' needs (Cronbach, Ambron, Dornbusch, Hess, Hornik, Phillips, Walker & Weiner, 1980); fourth generation evaluation (Guba & Lincoln, 1989); and realistic evaluation (Pawson & Tilley, 1997).

Brinkerhoff's (1997) approach advanced an integrated evaluation model which involves evaluation before the delivery of training as well as in respect of its outcomes. It is a strategic approach to evaluate the comment at the initial stage by identifying and prioritize the needs of training. Tony (1996) commented on the performance knowledge on training principle and practice should be added. He also measured the transfer of learning effectiveness to the workplace. He also indicated the training policy must be practiced to meet the organizational objective.

Training models that are more inclined towards the “endless belt” include CIRO (Context, Input, Reaction and Outcome) model introduced by Warr, Bird and Rackman (1970) and the CIPP model (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). CIRO looks for what needs



to be changed? What is likely to bring about the desired changes? And what suggests that a change has actually taken place? There are four levels of CIRO: Context – obtaining training needs and objectives; Input – analyzing the resource available; Reaction – same like Kirkpatrick; and lastly Outcomes – last 3 of Kirkpatrick model (Learning, Behavior and Result). The details of the CIRO evaluation model are as below:

Context evaluation involves obtaining and using information about current operational situation (or context) to determine training needs and objectives. This evaluation determines if training is needed.

Input evaluation consists of obtaining and using information about possible training resources to choose between alternative inputs to Human Resource Development. This type of evaluation involves analyzing the resources available and determining how can be deployed so that there is a maximum chance of achieving the desired objectives.

Reaction evaluation involves obtaining and using information about participants' reaction to improve the human resource development. The distinguish feature of this type of evaluation is that it relies on the subjective reports of the participants, and their views can prove extremely helpful if they are collected in a systematic manner.

Outcome evaluation involves obtaining and using information about the results of human resource development to improve future programs. This is the most important part of evaluation. If outcome evaluation is to be successful, it requires careful preparation before the training program begins.

Under the systems approach, the most influential models include: Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) Model (Worthen & Sanders, 1987); Training Validation System (TVS) Approach (Fitz-Enz, 1994); and Input, Process, Output, Outcome (IPO) Model (Bushnell, 1990).

CIPP Model introduced by educators on the National Study Committee on Evaluation of Phi Delta Kappa (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). It received better attention compare to Kirkpatrick model. Four levels of CIPP model are, Context evaluation, similar to CIRO model, input evaluation, similar to CIRO model, Process evaluation, which guide implementation of a training program through monitoring and data collection of what actually occurs during the implementation, against the plan and lastly, Product evaluation, to measure the attainment of objective, intended as well as unintended outcomes. Any traditional evaluation procedure may be used at this level. CIPP comprises of CIRO and Kirkpatrick's model. The details of the CIPP evaluation model are as below;

Context evaluation is useful for providing a rational for determined executives, context evaluation defines a relevant environment, identifies needs and opportunities and diagnoses specific problems. A need analysis is common example of context evaluation.

Input evaluation provides information to determine how to use resources to best meet program goals. It is used to decide if outside assistance is necessary and help to determine general strategy for planning and designing the program. The results of

input evaluation are often seen as policies, budgets, schedules, proposals, and procedures.

Process evaluation provides feedback to individuals responsible for implementation. It is accomplished through monitoring potential sources for failure, providing information for pre-planned decisions during implementation and describing what actually occurs. Both informal approaches are used in data collection. These include reaction sheets, rating scales, and analysis of existing records.

Product evaluation measures and interprets the attainment of objectives. It should measure intended as well as unintended outcomes. Evaluation at this level can take place both during and after the program. Parker (1973) suggested different ways of evaluating training programs by dividing the evaluation process into four groupings. Firstly, the job performance of individual – evaluates the extent to which an individual improved on the job. Secondly, the group performance – evaluates the impact of the training program on a group within the participant's function or the effect of the program on the whole organization. Thirdly, the participation satisfaction – the satisfaction covers the content of the program, method of training and their attitude toward what has been learnt. Lastly, the participant knowledge gained – facts, techniques, and skills absorbed by the participant. The above evaluation process seems to be an amended version of Kirkpatrick's model.

Jackson and Kulp (1979) also proposed a similar model to Kirkpatrick's model by using different terminologies. According to them, there are four evaluation levels; Level 1 – Reaction outcomes; Level 2 – Capability outcomes; Level 3 – Application outcomes;

Level 4 – Worth outcomes. The level 1 and 2 represents the immediate goals of training and the level 3 and 4 represent the long-term results. Leslie (1997) in his study applied three evaluation models developed by Kirkpatrick (1959), Hamblin (1974), and Warr, Bird and Rackham (1970). Hamblin's model is very similar to Kirkpatrick's in general terms and suggests five levels: Reaction, Learning, Job Behavior, Functioning and Ultimate Value. Besides, according to Warr, Bird and Rackham's model, it is containing four levels such as context evaluation, input evaluation, reaction evaluation and outcomes evaluation.

Philips (1996a, 1996b) further contributes to the understanding of training evaluation by exploring into the possibility of measuring training by converting to monetary values. He linked monetary value to training performance and divided training result into hard data and soft data. Hard data represents the objectives, easy to measure and easy to convert to monetary value such as output, quality and cycle time. On the other hand, soft data is subjective and difficult to measure into dollar sign such as knowledge acquired, skills learnt and change of attitude. He further improved Kirkpatrick's model from four levels to five levels. Level 1 - Reaction and Planned action - What are participants' reaction to the training? And What do they plan to do with the material? Level 2 – Learning- What skills, knowledge, or attitudes have changed? By how much? Level 3 - On-the-job application - Did participants apply on the job what they learned in training? Level 4 - Business Result - Did on the job application produce measurable results? and lastly Level 5 - Return-On-Investment - Did the monetary value of the results exceed the cost of training?

Goal-based and systems-based approaches are predominantly used in the evaluation of training (Philips, 1991). Various frameworks for evaluation of training programs have been proposed under the influence of these two approaches. The most influential framework has come from Kirkpatrick (1959; 1975; 1979; 1994; 1998). Kirkpatrick's work generated a great deal of subsequent. Training evaluation has been an important subject in management studies and research as it is related to the issues of efficiency, effectiveness and impact (Giangreco et. al., 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2005; Rossi & Freeman, 1989). McCoy and Hargie (2001) have argued that no one model of evaluation is complete and suitable for all situations. Each type has strengths and weaknesses. To evaluate effectively, there is a need for a better understanding of the nature of evaluation, its purpose, and other important relevant aspects such as organizational and participants' needs.

Therefore, "There is no right answer to what is the 'best' model" (Abdullah Lin, Gunalan a/l Nadarajah, 2015). What is best for one organization may be inappropriate for another (Anonymous, 2007). The most important is to look at model around which the organization will focus its evaluation. In view to the above, the four levels of evaluation of Kirkpatrick Training Evaluation Model are used as the based for this research work. However, the approach or methodology of the evaluation is slightly different from Kirkpatrick approach. The details discussion of Kirkpatrick's training evaluation is reviewed in Section 2.3.2.1 of this Chapter.

### **2.3.5.1 Kirkpatrick 4-Level of Training Evaluation**

Kirkpatrick's model follows the goal-based evaluation approach and is based on four simple questions that translate into four levels of evaluation. These four levels are widely known as reaction, learning, behavior, and results. Even though there are many evaluation models available, Kirkpatrick's model is more popular and easy to follow.

#### *Level 1: Reaction Evaluation*

Reaction - is the term that Kirkpatrick used to refer to how well the participants liked a particular training program. Participants give their assessment of a training course or learning event and generally give their level of satisfaction with the training/learning, typically at the end of the course or event. Evaluation of participants' reactions consists of measuring their feelings; it does not include a measure of actual learning. Kirkpatrick contended that although the evaluation of reactions is an easy measurement, many trainers do not follow these five essential steps for accurate measurement:

1. Determine what information is desired.
2. Devise a written "comment sheet" that includes items determined in the previous step.
3. Design the sheet so that reactions can be easily tabulated and manipulated by statistical means.
4. Make the sheets anonymous.
5. Encourage the participants to make additional comments not elicited by

questions on the sheet.

Although Kirkpatrick suggested that participants should feel free and be encouraged to make additional comments, he also contended that this type of qualitative data is extremely difficult to analyze. Thus, it is difficult to discern any patterns or trends in order to revise the training program. This evaluation uses a 'Happy' or 'Smiling' Sheet.

### *Level 2: Learning Evaluation*

According to Kirkpatrick (1979), the second level of analysis in the evaluation process is that of learning. Participants demonstrate what knowledge or skills they have acquired through achievement or performance tests or exercises. Kirkpatrick defines learning as the "principles, facts and techniques that were understood and absorbed by the participants" and identifies the following guidelines or standards for evaluation in terms of learning:

- a) Each participant's learning should be measured by quantitative means.
- b) A pre-test and post-test should be administered so that any learning can be attributed to the training program.
- c) The learning should be measured by objective means.
- d) When feasible, a control group should be used so that comparisons can be made with the actual training group.
- e) When feasible, the evaluation results should undergo statistical analysis so that learning can be viewed in terms of correlation and/or levels of confidence.

Obviously, evaluation of learning is much more difficult to measure than reaction. According to Kirkpatrick's guidelines, knowledge of statistical procedures is essential for accurate and meaningful measurement. When feasible, the evaluation results undergo statistical analysis so that learning can be viewed in terms of correlation and/or levels of confidence.

### *Level 3: Transfer-of-Learning Evaluation – The Behavior*

Kirkpatrick's third level in the evaluation model is transfer of learning. The transfer of knowledge or skills to the participants' behavior on the job is assessed. In the HRD literatures there are relatively few examples of studies that have specifically attempted to assess the transfer of training skills or knowledge to the job. Even Kirkpatrick (1979) warned that "evaluation of training programs in terms of on job behaviors is more difficult than the reaction and learning evaluations. As a result, much training is delivered without a plan for measuring the transfer of training. Kirkpatrick went on to suggest a framework for evaluating training programs in terms of behavioral changes:

- a) A systematic appraisal should be made of on-the-job performance on a before-and-after basis.
- b) The appraisal of performance should be made by one or more of the following parties (the more the better): the participant \ the participant's superior(s); the participant's subordinates; and/or the participant's peers or other people who are familiar with the participant's performance.
- c) A statistical analysis should be made to compare before-and-after performance and to relate changes to the training program.



- d) The post-training appraisal should be made three months or more after the training so that the participants have an opportunity to practice what they have learned. Subsequent appraisals may add validity to the study.
- e) A control group (of people who did not receive the training) should be used.

#### *Level 4: Results Evaluation*

Kirkpatrick's fourth level of evaluation is results or impact on the organization. The impact of the on- the- job changes on business or corporate objectives are assessed. Attempting to measure results is not for the fainthearted! Although measuring training programs in terms of results may be the best way to measure effectiveness, Kirkpatrick himself (1979) pointed out "there are ... so many complicating factors that it is extremely difficult if not impossible to evaluate certain kinds of programs in terms of results." The separation of variables to measure how much of the improvement is due to training is extremely difficult. Instead of offering a specific formula, Kirkpatrick simply reported anecdotal efforts to measure results. He did applaud attempts by researchers such as Likert (1967) to use qualitative data in measuring results, but he lamented the fact that current research techniques are essentially inadequate and that progress in this area is slow.

#### **2.3.5.2 Training Evaluation Approach**

Belasco and Trice (1975) have suggested a different approach in evaluating the effectiveness of the training program. They proposed the individual should be selected in advance using the testing method to allocate suitable individual into suitable

training programs so that the different approach and focus for different group could be adapted. In this way, they anticipated the training would be more effective. In their study, they found that the Solomon evaluation design was the most sensitive evaluation instruments. Group A was the experiment group, and Group B, C and D were the control group. Three variables were used as pre-test, during training and post-test. The outcome of using this model showed that the trained groups were more constructive and responsive towards knowledge and reaction, whereas the untrained group had less favorable attitude.

Easterby-Smith (1986) provided more significant insight on evaluation. According to him evaluation is a different and complex task because it is by no means easy to agree on the conceptual boundaries and what is to be investigated. There is enormous variation in practice of management and organization, and each contains a wide variety of philosophies, value systems, techniques, and structures. He introduces hard and soft data is the concept of scientific and naturalistic methods. The scientific methods refer to a specific occasion and involve measuring things (quantitative method), use of statistic an absolute criteria and are pre-ordinate, while the naturalistic method is seen as a continuing process where observation is made at difference point of time.

CAIPO (Context, Administration, Input, Process and Outcomes) practices this evaluation approach. The evaluation process covers three aspects that provides a narrative of what takes place, attempts to understand the experience of an event or activity from the viewpoint of participants, possibly based on some of the narrative data obtained from training and investigates specific aspects and dimensions of what takes place, particularly in the area of interaction between people.

Lawrie (1988) and Phillips (1991) have recommended “a change of attitude” among practitioners in order to achieve a successful evaluation methodology. Fitz-Enz (1994) recommended the use of training value analysis (TVA) method to evaluate the effect of training. According to him, “... they must prove that people use skill, knowledge or attitude to upgrade the job performance”. He also discussed extensively about training value to trainees in terms of new capability, attitude and new knowledge acquired. He listed non- monetary value as reduced stress, time save, better relationship and increased productivity. According to Nancy (1990) the purpose of evaluation is to improve the design or delivery of learning events, to increase the use of the learning on the job and to make decision about learning in the organization.

Bramley (1991;1996) outlined five basic types of strategies for education, which are particularly relevant to training events: the system approach that seek to improve efficiency by asking about expected effect; the goal based approach that seeks to establish accountability by asking question about objective being achieved; the goal-free approach that to discover all the effects of the program. He emphasized the opinion of the program, participants and thus the consumer utility aspects; professional review approach that lead to acceptance or rejection of a program based on the opinion of a group of peers; and lastly, the quasi-legal approach that weigh the arguments for and against the program using a wide range of evidence from interested parties.

Bramley (1991) did not suggest that evaluator should select one strategy, use one or more. His strategies were supported and agreed by Lam and Kong (1994) in their project paper ‘A Study on the Effectiveness of the In-house Management Training and Development’. They have used strategies outlined by Bramley.

In a survey of Training and Development Journal, 30% of respondents identified "evaluation of training as the most difficult part of the job" (Galagan, 1983 & Del Faizo, 1984 cited in Foxon, 1989). This finding is not surprising since evaluation is poorly defined having different meanings for different people in many different contexts. There is a strong dependence in the profession on the determination of trainee reactions to programs as a major means of evaluation (AlMadhoun, 2006; Anonymous, 2007; Sutherland, 2009; Thacker & Yost, 2002; Williams, Graham & Baker, 2003). Foxon (1989) makes the point that many trainers see the "development and delivery of training as their primary concern, and evaluation something of an afterthought." She suggests that the reliance on post-course reactions results from an inability to deal with quantitative measurement techniques and a lack of finances, time and expertise in comprehensive evaluation (Anonymous, 2007; Williams et. al., 2003). Further, she suggested that training practitioners were confused by the term and did not understand what its "essential features" were nor what "purpose it should serve". In addition, evaluation can also be developed by conducting the return-on-investment (ROI) studies ("Strategic Direction," 1998). Phillips (1991) and Lawrie (1988) recommend "a change of attitude" among practitioners in order to achieve a successful evaluation methodology. The program evaluations should include not only the training process but also feedback from the participants in terms of content and applicability of such programs (Rodrigues, 2005; Worsfold & Griffith, 2003). It is suggested that a good evaluation system is a collaborative process, a co- creation by organizational leaders, trainers, participants and evaluators (Lingham, Richley & Rezaria; 2006).

Sanlier and Karakus (2010) have used questionnaire for 430 people to evaluate the safety practice at the workplace. In Taiwan, Tsai and Tai (2003) have used questionnaires to evaluate the participant's perception (level 1) on training and behavior (level 3). The questionnaires method was also being used in AlMadhoun (2006) study in Palestine where the managers were asked to evaluate their own performance after they attended the management development training. He used Likert scale to measure effectiveness for level 1, 2 and 3.

The questionnaire approach of Level 1, 2 and 3 were also been used by Castrillon and Cantorna (2005) survey for 90 manufacturing technologies companies in Spain; Tai (2006) studied to 126 employees in Taiwan on the effectiveness of new computer software and design; Billington, Neeson and Barrett (2009) studied where involving employees and managers on how to improve their knowledge and skills of work; and Johnson, Gueutral and Faber (2009) studied on courses, interaction of courses through e-learning to 964 students in United States Universities. Studied in Malaysia by Cheng, Yang and Mahmood (2009) and Taiwan by Chan and Mak (2010) used students to evaluate the effectiveness of education in their country. Lastly, Forrier and Sels (2003) used questionnaires for 815 companies for data collection to measure the ROI in term of productivity, quality, waste, cycle-time and employee turnover.

The above views suggest alternative in evaluating the training effectiveness. Kirkpatrick evaluation model suggests level 1 evaluation by respondents; level 2 evaluation by pre/post-test, interview or observation; level 3 by observation and interview and level 4 by management report or system. However, based on the above discussions and views, the evaluation of all levels can also been done quantitatively

by the respondents since they know best what they have learnt, applied and contributed. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that there is a lot of improvements can be done to Kirkpatrick Training Evaluation Model and method. Other training evaluation models suggested similar approach where some would agree that self-report could also been used to evaluate the effectiveness of the training program. Very importantly to know that competency or performance may rely less on participants' satisfaction and more on the relevance of the learning as applied within practice, and the readiness and capability of the worker to do the job right, to make the right decisions and the right choice (Anonymous, 2007).

## **2.4 Training Effectiveness**

Fraser (1994) defined effectiveness as a measure of the match between stated goals and their achievement. It is always possible to achieve 'easy', low-standard goals. In other words, quality in higher education cannot only be a question of achievements 'outputs' but must also involve judgments about the goals (part of 'inputs'). Erlendsson (2002) defined effectiveness as the extent to which objectives were met ('doing the right things'). The UNESCO definition of Effectiveness (educational) is an output of specific review/analyses (e.g., the WASC Educational Effectiveness Review or its Reports on Institutional Effectiveness) that measure (the quality of) the achievement of a specific educational goal or the degree to which a higher education institution can be expected to achieve specific requirements. It is different from efficiency, which is measured by the volume of output or input used.

Wojtczak (2002) defined effectiveness in the context of medical education as a measure of the extent to which a specific intervention, procedure, regimen, or service, when deployed in the field in routine circumstances, did what it was intended to do for a specified population. In the health field, it is a measure of output from those health services that contribute towards reducing the dimension of a problem or improving an unsatisfactory situation. West (1999) argued that in relation to training, as opposed to education, one way of looking at the issue of effectiveness was in terms of whether there were 'identifiable economic outcomes'. A broader definition still focuses on the extent to which training 'meets its objectives'. Descy and Westphalen (1998) have defined this more precisely as training that 'meets its objectives as defined by its funding body'. This is a useful definition since it is undoubtedly the funding body that ultimately decides whether or not training will be made available. Whilst this is a useful test, there are two points to bear in mind. First, it is not always the case that the funders' precise objectives are transparent, although their general aims may be. Second, whilst the funders may have objectives, it is only by relating the extent to which these are perceived to have been met – by the various stakeholders (e.g. individuals, enterprises) – that one can really understand the extent to which the training has been effective. There may also be unintended consequences of training that aid an individual's employability – for example, improving 'soft skills' such as an individual's self-esteem, motivation or ability to work in a team. Flippo (1976) outlined the effectiveness of the training can be measured at any level. It is depending to the organization to decide whether to measure the whole things or some part of its (Kirkpatrick 1998, 2005).

Effectiveness measures are the reactions, learning, and/or results criteria which are used in studies to generally show results for the effect of training (Ostroff, 1991). Kamal (2004) viewed training effectiveness is a result from the implementation of any ideas at work and trainee assess over the boundary of job improvement ideas. Chapados, Rentfrow, and Hochheiser (1987) have recommended four principles of training to be incorporated into a training activity to guarantee a positive impact on organizational productivity. Chapados's four principles were derived from earlier work by prominent writers of the corporate area. The four principles recommended him include making the training content relevant to the trainees, making training objectives congruent with the work tasks you are trying to affect, making training event/design systematic and be sure it relates to training objectives, and lastly, making training delivery respond to trainees' frames of references. They concluded by saying that training is not the ultimate answer but it one of the components in a productivity improvement effort.

As a primary measure of success of a program or of a higher education institution, clear indicators, meaningful information, and evidence best reflecting institutional effectiveness with respect to student learning and academic achievement have to be gathered through various procedures (inspection, observation, site visits, etc.). Engaging in the measurement of educational effectiveness creates a value-added process through quality assurance and accreditation review and contributes to building, within the institution, a culture of evidence (Vlăsceanu, Grünberg & Pârlea, 2004).

Tennant, Boonkrong, and Roberts (2002) have found that "wasted training" is a common problem in organization due to lack of appropriate assessment of training



effectiveness. On the other hand, Hunt and Baruch (2003) have argued that one-off training programs do not generate high impact however the evaluation of training should be an involved process bringing together organizational and participant perspectives; and that it should be developed on a case-by-case basis (similar to that of action research) highlighting its uniqueness for each training program (Lingham, Richley & Rezaria, 2006). In order to leverage the learning experience and to ensure efficient use of resources, the evaluation of training program is both necessary and critical for organizations. Numerous studies have highlighted the importance of evaluation, few have given attention to whether such evaluations yield useful information for the organization and its members. Measure of learning effectiveness is not simple. As mentioned by Syverson (1999) that learning occurs across complex dimensions which were interrelated and interdependent. Savolainen (2000) stated in his study that change and learning reinforces each other.

Most training effectiveness has focused on cost-benefit analyses (Lewis & Thornhill, 1994) or simple evaluations such as level of happiness indices (Paauwe & Williams, 2001). The next step to explore in details is the level four of Kirkpatrick (1975;1979;1998) model: 'Business Result'. The fourth level in this model is to evaluate the business impact of the training program. Kirkpatrick's fourth level of evaluation, results, is still difficult to measure. The difficulty is the ability to separate training from the multitude of other variables that can impact long-term performance. The econometric and utility models may be statistically elegant but are not sufficiently intuitive to warrant widespread application. This fact suggests opportunities for further research into alternative approaches and methodologies for addressing results. The

more qualitative, quasi-experimental approaches involving action research, critical incidents, and similar methods appear to be more promising. These approaches offer the advantage of observing and documenting the impact of training activities at the site.

Kirkpatrick was asked by the trainers during consultation work with one of the organization, to skip discussion on Level 1, 2 and 3 evaluations but focus more on how to evaluate training using level 4 – Result. This is what his customer wants to know how training brings result to the organization. He replied to the queries that to know all levels of training evaluation was very important but to measure them were not an easy task especially at level 4. This is because complicating factors can make it very difficult, it's not impossible, to evaluate certain kinds of training program in term of result. He recommended the training directors begin to evaluate using the first three levels: reaction, learning, and behavior. Simms (1993) in his article 'Evaluating Public Sector Training Program' claimed that the fundamental reason for not evaluating training is because it is difficult, tedious, and time consuming.

Assesses the financial impact of the training course on the bottom line of the organization six months to two years after the course (Simms, 1993). The only scientific way to isolate training as a variable would be to isolate a representative control group within the larger population. Carliner (1995) stated that for many reasons, Level 4 was the most difficult level to measure. First, most training courses do not have explicitly written business objectives, such as "this course should reduce support expenses by 20 percent". Second, the methodology for assessing business impact is not yet refined. Lastly, after 6 months or more, evaluators have difficulty

solely attributing changed business results to training when changes in personnel, systems, and other factors might also have contributed to business performance. Alternatively, a logistics company could develop a safety-training course for forklift truck drivers, because a recent law made it obligatory for them to pass a national qualifying exam (level 2: learning). The company managing the security of an airport might train its staff about new procedures regarding liquids and personal computers in carry-on luggage, with the objective of ensuring staff members pay more attention to details (level 3: behavior). Finally, a public hospital may train its radiology technicians in the use of a new computer tomography machine that will allow them to conduct more tests per day (level 4: results).

The above discussions indicate various perspectives or levels of measuring the training effectiveness. For this research, the training evaluation levels are based on Kirkpatrick's model since majority of the studies indicated similarity in their measurement levels. Therefore, the measurements of training effectiveness levels are grouped according to Kirkpatrick's Training Evaluation model. Below sections entail the level of training effectiveness adopted from Kirkpatrick's model.

## **2.5 Factor of Training Effectiveness**

### **2.5.1 Trainee Characteristics**

In addition to characteristics of study design and the training environment, characteristics of the participants themselves may be expected to influence the effectiveness of instruction (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Older participants (e.g., early-

and midcareer professionals), for example, may be better prepared to benefit from instruction involving complex problem solving, in comparison to their younger counterparts (e.g., undergraduate students). This may be due to their greater maturity with regard to emotional self-regulation and social interactions (Blanchard-Fields, 2007) and having accumulated more life and professional experiences (Dane & Sonenshein, 2015). However, trainees with prior exposure to instruction in ethics may not show the same gains as those who are exposed to such material for the first time.

The gender of trainees may also influence the outcomes observed, as many studies have demonstrated that women, on average, tend to score slightly higher than men on measures of ethical judgment and reasoning (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005). Thus, because men tend to start lower on these measures, we might expect men to show larger gains than women due to ethics instruction. Finally, fields may differ with regard to the instructional content and delivery approaches employed, indicating that field differences in ethics instruction effectiveness may be observed (Antes et al., 2009). For example, ethics instruction for social scientists may be expected to focus more on research issues involving the protection of human subjects and data sharing compared with training programs targeting engineers, which might focus more on safety issues, bids, and contracts. Finally, because many of the instructional programs in ethics and publicly available resources have been developed in the United States for English-speaking populations, international training programs, which may employ different content and criteria and which occur in different cultures, could also show differences in gains observed due to ethics instruction (Steele et al., 2015). In sum, differences in

participants were examined to determine if these trainee characteristics were associated with the effectiveness of instruction (Watts et al., 2017).

#### **2.5.1.1 The relationship of Trainee Characteristics and Training Effectiveness**

There were differences in effectiveness between individual officials. Some of them benefited more than others from the program. This applies to both short-term effectiveness and long-term effectiveness. The individual differences may be explained in part by factors that, according to the theoretical framework, influenced the effectiveness of the program. The research findings (van Montfort et al., 2013) demonstrate the influence of some factors on the effectiveness of the programme.

The fact that some hypotheses were confirmed by the empirical data offers a starting point for formulating a few recommendations for governmental bodies and training agencies. First, less-educated officials should be offered training programs. They would probably benefit more from the program in the long term than their colleagues with a higher educational level. Second, programs should especially be given to staff of departments characterized by a poor ethical climate. If the ethical climate of a department is poor, the training is likely to be more effective. A poor ethical climate implies that participants will initially have a low level of integrity, so substantial progress could be realized by the program (Beck et al. 2010, 24–25).

According to (Pallai & Gregor, 2016), the conviction that “smiley sheets” do not fulfil the prudential obligation of public training providers. Organizers of civil servant trainings who are financed from public resources should be obliged to prove that their

trainings have achieved the targeted impact on the participants and, when possible, should also use survey results for improving training activities. For these validation and learning purposes, surveying participants' reactions is not enough. The trainings' impacts on participants' learning should also be surveyed, and if possible even the impact on behaviors and organizational results (i.e. level 2 and, if possible, higher level evaluation methods). This claim, in principle, can hardly be challenged. The most prevalent explanation training providers give for the absence of effectiveness assessment is seemingly practical: they claim that it would be complicated and costly and it is often beyond their organizational capacity.

### **2.5.2 Training Design**

According to Pallai & Gregor (2016), in most organizations at least the last two components (transparency and rule-consistent behavior) are often in short supply and many deeply rooted practices clash with the principles of public integrity. Within this context, the objectives of the trainings were to (1) encourage participants to reflect on the integrity-deficient organizational practices, (2) break their apathy and learned helplessness towards positive action and strengthen their trust in possible change and (3) help them see their potential role in the process, that is, lead them to take responsibility. For all these objectives we had to show that criminalization of corruption alone is not enough, that is, the full responsibility cannot be shifted to the legal system. In addition, we had to show the role of a well-organized and functioning public administration in curbing corruption, and with this encourage participants to understand their own potential role in fighting corruption and to take responsibility.

All this was done in the hope that this may lead them to return to their organizations and to encourage others to reflect and to change corrupt practices.

The goal was to initiate learning on all three levels of Bloom's taxonomy, that is, initiating cognitive, affective and behavioral learning (Bloom et al., 1956). The teaching method best suited for this purpose was a participant-centered interactive, experiential method with a strong argumentative component based on facilitated peer learning. (Pallai, 2014: 142–146, 2015b: 96) In order to secure, to the highest degree possible, identical content and method, a detailed methodology was designed with schedules, learning tools, visuals, PowerPoint presentations and handouts. Each trainer involved had to deliver the given content and use the same training tools and method. The trainers were experienced trainers – mostly university faculty members, with the exception of two out of the 26. They received an intensive training, including individual learning of the integrity approach, and 7 days of training of trainers (ToT) sessions, which included deeper discussions of the substantive issues and methodology, as well as a demonstration of the sequence of activities during the training. The trainings were organized in mixed groups. An effort was made to diversify groups based on a variety of characteristics, such as professional field, organization, background, position, civil service experience, etc.

The outcomes of training (Farr, 1993) as well as trainees' reaction and learning are dependent on the training content i.e. unnecessary repetition and misconceptions in the content affect the criterion accordingly (Lee, 1999).

Therefore, training content acts as a predictor of formative training effectiveness. The important aspects of training contents are, amongst others, its organization and suitability of the delivery method (Robinson, 1989).

The goal of training objective and content is to impart to individuals a new set of knowledge, skills, behavior or attitude, Goldstein (1993). Moreover, the good training design will contribute to the increase of employee productivity. The training program should be designed properly in such way that will create a positive impact to the employees in organization (Kaur, 2010). Therefore, both organization and employees can meet up goal if learning skills are transferring effectively to their job scope. Training design also creating a specific subject from which the participant can learn and apply to their workforce (Bown-Wilson, 2010). Moreover, by providing a good framework and content, the most important aspects are to establish objectives and outcomes therefore the participant can understand clearly. Yupawadee, Lesley and Graham (2008) suggested training objective as a part of training design may encourage staff to participate more in the training. On the other hand, once the objective and content purposively designed to match with the employee needs and that their personal goals are consulted and incorporated in the design, they may have a more positive attitude toward the training. This will motivate them to learn and transfer the skills acquired to their workplace. The goal of training objective and content (Yupawadee Laoledchai, 2008) of training design start with the identification or creation of competency models and performance of productivity measurements (Squires, 2010). Training require competency models to ascertain the skills and required to be successful on the job. These target jobs also require performance and productivity



measurements for evaluation purposes. Once the skill requirements of a job are known through the competency models, training and assessment tools can be built. Training and its objectives must be designed around a valid competency model so called competency-based learning. Similarly, assessments should be built around valid competency models, this is called competency-based assessment.

One approach to develop a good training design is to use the instructional system development (ISD) this is a stepwise approach for creating a standardized training program (Molenda, 2003). It consists of five criteria: analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. Through each step of the ISD model informational outputs and controlled process decisions are generated and incorporated into the next phase. The model starts with an assessment of training needs through the evaluation of the job task, regulatory requirements, the organization's needs, and the level of education and experience of the employee. Based on the training needs assessment, instructional objectives, training tools, and lesson plans are constructed. Once the preparative work has been completed the actual training can be performed. The final phase of the ISD model is an evaluation of the trainee and the training process via feedback mechanisms, in order to identify what went well and where process improvements can be made (Kadidlo, 2009).

### **2.5.2.1 The relationship of Training Design and Training Effectiveness**

Training goal is one of the key elements to the success of training effectiveness. Yupawadee, Lesley and Graham (2008) Goal-matching between training design and training effectiveness may enhance job performance. Training researchers have focused on identifying factors related to one or several of these training and transfer outcome. Much of this research has concentrated on training design factors related to training effectiveness. For example, Woodworth (1901) proposed the principle of identical elements as a central feature of training design This principle suggests that transfer will be maximized to the extent that there are similar stimulus and response elements present in the training and transfer setting (Royer, 1979). Other design issues such as training content (Gagne, 1962) and conditions of practice have proven to be reliable predictors of training effectiveness, (Baldwin and Ford 1988). In addition, to training design factors, individual differences among trainees have also been found to be related to training and training outcomes (Mumford, 1989).

Researchers are beginning to realize that factors beyond training design and individual differences can also have an indirect impact on training and transfer outcomes. These factors evolve out of the organizational context in which training program exists. Thus, they are often neglected during the design and implementation of training systems (Goldstein, 1993). In spite of the identification of these contextual factors, their exact roles in training effectiveness have not been addressed explicitly. In a training design context, firstly, motivation can influence the willingness of an employee to attend a training program. Secondly, to exert energy toward the program, and finally, to transfer what they learn in the program onto the job finally (Quinones, 1995). Thus, it is likely that trainees cannot obtain the benefits of a training program

without considering their training motivation. Training is a basic element to the growth and economic wellbeing of a nation (Mehrdad Alipour, 2009). Therefore, training is very important and have pervades at all level of industry for a national level because country wellbeing in enhanced by training, to each company where the productivity is improved. Those employees are very skillful are very valuables also can improve their position in the workplace. In order to make training more effective management have to decide what training is suitable to their employees. It had been proven by (Tai, 2006) found that employees had more training motivation when were assigned to attend the training program by management than they made their choice freely. That is, a training assignment by management sent a clear signal that attending the training was important; and the nature and manner of the assigning of the training (i.e. volunteer or mandatory attendance) can further enhance trainee perception of the task. In addition, the framing of the assigned training to the needs of a department by a supervisor will increase employee perception regarding the importance of training and the value of attending a specific training program.

### **2.5.3 Work Environment**

Conducive environment and no interruption during the training are two main factors for training to be effective. The other measurements include in working environment are the nature of work (i.e. shift work or normal working hour) and the support from the supervisor, colleague and manager. Providing drink and food will help the participant feel good about the training environment (Al-Eisa et. al., 2009).

Eight items were derived to test the relationship between the working environment and training effectiveness. Two items were adapted from Pau (2001) which were “The

training room was conducive during this training programme” and “The general atmosphere during this training program enhance the learning process”. Two items were adapted from Al-Eisa et. al (2009) which were “My supervisor gives recognition to those who apply new knowledge and skills to their work after attending this training program” and “My supervisor encourages employees to attend this training program”. One item was adapted from Barcala et. al (2000) which was “The seating arrangement of the classroom for this training program was well arranged” and one item was adapted from Tai (2006) which was “The nature of my work allows me to attend this training program without interruption”. This item represents the nature of work and the shift pattern.

The balance two items were constructed by the researcher. There were as follows:

1. The meals served for this training program were good.
2. My working partner (colleague) does not encourage me to attend this training program.

Respondents indicated their agreement or disagreement with the statement and using the following five-point rating scale.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neutral
4. Agree
5. Strongly Agree

### **2.5.3.1 The relationship of Work Environment and Training Effectiveness**

The behavioral outcomes of the training may have been initially driven by perceptions of the importance of organizational values, but once behavioral outcomes improved, the behavior may have become self-reinforcing, such that future decreases in perceptions of values had no effect on the behavioral outcomes. (Warren, Gaspar, & Laufer, 2014). Moreover, it would be interesting to compare the perceptions of university students regarding workplace ethics issues to the perceptions of those who have never pursued university education (Gillespie Finney & Zachary Finney, 2013).

According to Verma, Mohapatra and Löwstedt, 2016, individual perception about the importance of ethics has greater impact on individual ideologies than organizational ethical values, which implies that employees can change their ideologies if they understand the importance of ethics. However, these changes may not get directly transmitted to organizational activities (see, for example: Harvey 2000). The vital role played by the leadership in grooming ethical organizational cultures through: (a) leading by example, (b) providing employees with necessary support and resources, etc. Here, it is pertinent to cite Treviño (1986) who posits that both individual and situational factors moderate the relationship between making a moral judgment and engaging in moral behavior. A study of organizational HR philosophy can bring further knowledge about the impact of ethics training on organizational culture.

## 2.6 Chapter Summary

The effectiveness of a training programme is the result of several factors. The important aspects are trainee's characteristics, training design consists of training objectives plus training content and working environment. All of these factors are referred to have an impact on the staff ethical behavior. This chapter reviewed the literature related to the major components of this study. There are some literatures which clearly suggested that there is a connection between trainee's characteristics, training design and working environment on the training effectiveness.



## CHAPTER 3

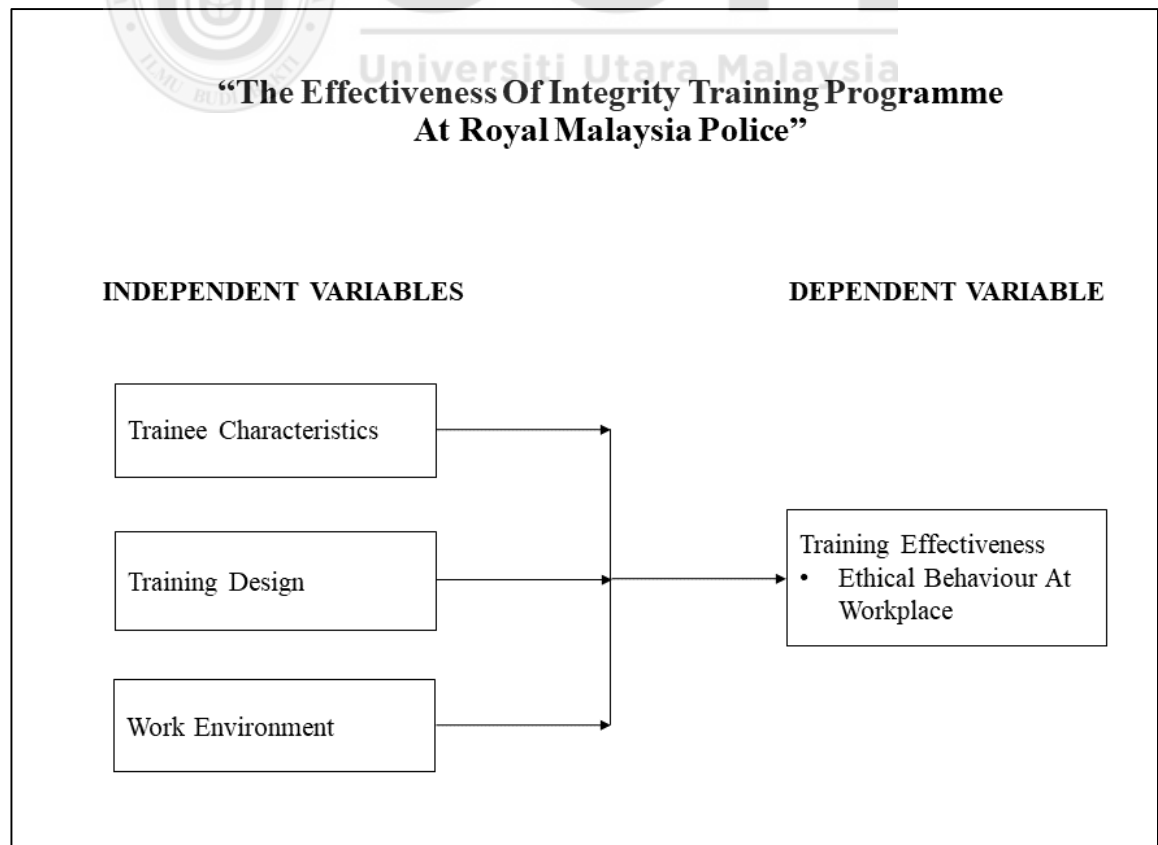
### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the sample and data collection procedures. It also discusses the operational measure of variables used in the study, as well as the statistical procedures, and the statistical test used to evaluate the research variables.

#### 3.2 Research Framework

Table 3.1  
*The framework of this research*



This study determined factors that affect the training effectiveness of integrity training programme besides investigated the relationship between the training effectiveness and factors among police officers. The dependent variable for this study is training effectiveness on changing the ethical behavior at workplace. Meanwhile, the independent variables are trainee characteristics, training design and working environment. Training design consists of training objective and training content.

### **3.3 Research Design**

This study is a cross sectional field survey because it involves the examination of the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables.

### **3.4 Operational Definition**

This study emphasized on the below terms for the operational definitions:

#### **3.4.1 Training Effectiveness**

Training effectiveness refers to the extent to which an activity fulfils its intended purpose or function. It is also referring to the benefits that the company and the trainee receive from training. Benefits for trainees may include learning new skills or behavior. Benefits for the company may include increment in sales and more customer-satisfaction (Kirkpatrick, 1959; 1975). It is also a measure of the match between stated goals and their achievement (Fraser, 1994). It is always possible to achieve 'easy', low-standard goals. As a short, effectiveness refers to the extent to which objectives are met -doing the right things' (Erlendsson, 2002). In the context of this research, a



broad definition from Kirkpatrick (1959; 1975; 1977; 1979) is used to define the training effectiveness.

### **3.4.2 Trainee Characteristics**

According to Balwin and Ford (1988) consists of trainee's ability, personality and training-related expectation.

### **3.4.3 Training Design**

Training design is defined as the degree to which training has been designed and delivered to give trainees the ability to transfer learning to the job (Holton & Baldwin, 2000).

### **3.4.4 Work Environment**

Conducive environment and no interruption during the training are two main factors for training to be effective. The other measurements include in working environment are the nature of work (i.e. shift work or normal working hour) and the support from the supervisor, colleague and manager. Providing drink and food will help the participant feel good about the training environment (Al-Eisa et. al., 2009).

### **3.5 Research Instruments**

This study is focusing on the relationship between trainee characteristics, training design and work environment on the training effectiveness. The respondents were asked same questionnaire and answer is based on their experience after attended training.

### **3.6 Data Collection**

This section was a crucial aspect of this study. The accurate data will contribute to the valid and useful result instead inaccurate data could impact the invalid result. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to the officer of Training Unit, JIPS. The officer had identified the respondents who had attended Integrity Training Programme for the last six (6) months. Based on the training record, 200 police officers had attended the Integrity Training Programme. A total set of 200 questionnaires were distributed. The study involved employees from Senior Police Officer, Junior Police Officer and General Officer.

### **3.7 Population**

The population of this study involves 260 employees of JIPS at RMP. There are six (6) divisions under JIPS. They include:

- General Administration / Policing
- Religious and Counseling Division
- Complaint Management

- Compliance
- Operation Intelligence
- Investigation / Legislation / Case Study

### 3.8 Sample

The researcher applied a disproportionate stratified random sampling to select respondents. The appropriate sample for a population of 260 is 155 (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970) as shown in the Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

*Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population*

- Assume population proportion of 0.5 and confidence 95%

Population Size	Sample Size	Population Size	Sample Size	Population Size	Sample Size
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

### **3.9 Data Collection Procedures**

Questionnaires were distributed to the participants by hardcopy with the help of Training Unit, JIPS.

Data was collected from primary source. The questionnaires had been distributed to 200 participants comprising Senior Police Officer, Junior Police Officer and General Officer of JIPS, RMP. Based on the discussion in Section 2, only 200 out of 260 staff are suitable to participate in this survey. This is because, only 200 staff had attended the Integrity Training Programme between six months and less than two years. The Integrity Training Programme is organized by JIPS, RMP twice a year to educate integrity work culture in RMP.

Data were gathered through questionnaire with close-ended question. Closed-ended format was used in order to make the respondents feel easier to answer and to increase the number of completed responses and also to make data analysis convenient and more objective (Sekaran, 1999, 2003).

The survey was administered by Training Unit of JIPS. The researcher follow-up through phone calls, face-to-face meeting and emails with Training Unit team. The survey was done for three weeks beginning in mid-May 2018 until 4 June 2018.

Confidentiality of the answers was assured by giving each respondent an envelope to enable them to return the sealed questionnaire. However, there were some issues such as the respondents were not responding on time because of their tight work scheduled, they had to work shifts and their lack of understanding on the benefits of the study. To overcome these problems, Training Unit team follow-up with mass communication

over the email and face-to-face meeting. This action has helped to increase the response rate.

The overall response rate for the study was good achieving 78 percent as the norm for response rate in management research in Malaysia was claimed to be between 20 to 40 percent (Rozhan & Zakaria, 1996).

A total of 200 sets of questionnaire were distributed by face-to-face meeting by Training Unit, JIPS. Out of which, 156 sets of questionnaire were returned with complete answered questions.

### **3.10 Pilot Study**

The purpose of performing pilot study is to ensure whether the respondents are understood with the items in the instrument. By doing a pilot study the reliability of the study was investigated. The information gained was used to improve the methods or instruments where applicable. This procedure is necessary before the collecting the data. The pilot study was conducted on a small group of people.

The findings of the pilot study assisted the researcher in the removal of questions that were considered to be vague or unclear to the participants. The researcher will know whether the questionnaire is fully understood by the respondents. The pilot study was conducted among 30 respondents.

### 3.10.1 Reliability Analysis

The reliability of the pilot study's questionnaire was tested by using Cronbach's Alpha or called Alpha Coefficient to show the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The condition for a reliable instrument i.e. the value 0.7 of Cronbach Alpha is acceptable while 0.6 is considered fair, (Sekaran, 2003). The details of the Cronbach's Alpha as shown in the Table 3.3:

Table 3.3  
*Reliability Analysis – Cronbach's Alpha*

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Trainee Characteristics	10	.921
Training Design Objectives	13	.941
Work Environment	5	.922
Training Effectiveness	16	.925
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>	

The respondents answer all and understood by the respondents if the values  $<0.6$  may signal that the questions are not clear to the respondents. Therefore, in this case the variables were reliable. According to Sekaran (2003), the value of 0.7 and above is considered as reliable.

### **3.11 Statistical Analysis**

#### **3.11.1 Descriptive Analysis**

Descriptive analysis involves in portraying the demographic profile of the respondents in frequency and percentage measurement. In this study researcher has employed 10 demography data stated in section 1 and 2 of the questionnaire such as gender, age, marital status, highest education level, job title, race, years of working experience, number of integrity training programme attended, latest of month and year of the integrity training programme attended.

#### **3.11.2 Inferential Analysis**

Inferential analysis used to make inferences or judgment about a population on the basis of sample. In this study, the researcher uses Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Pearson coefficient is used to show the degree of linear relationship between independent and dependent variables. The symbol of a correlation coefficient is  $r$ , and its range is from -1.00 to +1.00. A correlation coefficient tells two things about the relationship between two variables; the direction of the relationship and its magnitude. The closer the measure is to 1.00, the more likely the relationship is statistically significant (Munchinsky, 1993). The interpretation of the strength of correlation is shown in Table 3.4 (Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007).

Table 3.4  
*Interpretation of strength of correlation coefficient*

Coefficient range	Strength of Association
+0.91 to +1.0	Very Strong
+0.71 to +0.90	High
+0.41 to +0.70	Moderate
+0.21 to +0.40	Weak but definite relationship
0 to +0.20	Very weak, almost negligible

Sources: Hair, J. F. Jr., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). *Research Methods for Business*. England: John Wiley & Sons.

### 3.12 Questionnaire Design and Development

The questionnaires are design based on the following stated in Table 3.5. However, the researcher has shown questionnaire to the Expert review in order to ensure the question are reliable having good quality which would make it the respondents are clear and understand it clearly.

Table 3.5  
*Design of questionnaire*

Variable	Number of Item	Source
Training Effectiveness	16	Malaysian Institute of Integrity (2017)
Trainee Characteristics	10	Lin (2012)
Training Design	13	Charles Tenant, Mahithorn Boonkrong and Paul Roberts (2002)
Work Environment	16	Lin (2012)



The scale of Likert is used to measure the level of agreement as shown in Table 3.6 except for both section 1 and 2. For section 1, it involved respondent and the company background. As for section 2, it is about the details of the integrity training programme attended by respondent.

Table 3.6  
*Scale of Likert*

Likert Scale	Choices Score
Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2
Neutral	3
Agree	4
Strongly Agree	5

### 3.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the development of the research model for this study. The research methodology and the research design have been explained following, the research framework and research objectives. Different statistical tests, such as, descriptive (frequency and percentage) and Inferential analysis (Pearson correlation) are used to examine the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter will explore and interpret the data collected in order to answer the three research questions in Chapter 1. All data were analyzed using statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) version 25.0 for window. This chapter divided into four sections. The first section will provide the information regarding frequency and percentage in analyzing the respondents' demographic characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, highest education level, job title, race and years of working. The second section will analyze the reliability testing. The third section will provide the information about relationship each variable that used in this current study. Finally, the fourth section will examine independent variables and dependent variable using regression analysis.

#### 4.2 Overview of the Data Gathered

Table 4.1 shows the summary of the sample profile discussed in Chapter 3. *Sample Profile.*

Number of questions distributed - (X)	200
Number of questions collected back – (Y)	156
Response rate – $Y/X * 100\%$	78%

#### 4.2.1 Response Rate

From 200 questionnaires distributed, 156 questionnaires were returned. Hence, the response rate was 78 percent.

#### 4.2.2 Demographic Profile

Table 4.2

*Demographic Characteristics – Respondents Profile*

No.	Demographic	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1.	Gender	Male	93	59.6
		Female	63	40.4
		Total	156	100.0
2.	Age	21 to 30 years old	33	21.2
		31 to 40 years old	68	43.6
		41 to 50 years old	22	14.1
		Above 51 years old	33	21.2
		Total	156	100.0
3.	Marital Status	Single	40	25.6
		Divorcee	6	3.8
		Married	110	70.5
		Total	156	100.0
4.	Highest Qualification	LCE/SRP/PMR	3	1.9
		MCE/SPM/SPVM	78	50.0
		HCE/STPM/STAM	13	8.3
		Professional Certificate	3	1.9
		Diploma	47	30.1
		Degree	9	5.8
		Master	3	1.9
		Total	156	100.0
5.	Job Title	Senior Police Officer	38	24.4
		Junior Police Officer	83	53.2
		General Officer	35	22.4
		Total	156	100.0

No.	Demographic	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
6.	Race	Malay	128	82.1
		Indian	15	9.6
		Chinese	7	4.5
		Others	6	3.8
		Total	156	100.0
7.	Working experience	Less than 5 years	21	13.5
		5 to 10 years	24	15.4
		11-15 years	37	23.7
		16-20 years	25	16.0
		More than 5 years	49	31.4
		Total	156	100.0

Table 4.2 provides information about demographic respondent that divided into seven (7) categories which is gender, age, marital status, highest education level, job title, race and duration of working experience

Most the respondents who participated in this study were male (93 respondents, 59.6%), followed by female 63 respondents (40.4%).

The age of respondents is range from 31 to 40 years old (68 respondents, 43.6%), 21 to 30 years old (33 respondents, 21.2%), above 51 years old (33 respondents, 21.2%) and 41 to 50 years old (22 respondents, 14.1%).

The respondents' status indicated that 110 of them were married (70.5%), while in the categories single were 40 respondents (25.6%) and there are 6 divorcees (3.8%).

The highest qualifications of respondents are MCE/SPM/SPVM (78 respondents, 50%), Diploma (47 respondents, 30.1%), HCE/STPM/STAM (13 respondents, 8.3%), Degree (9 respondents, 5.8%), Master (3 respondents, 1.9%), Professional Certificate (3 respondents, 1.9%) and LCE/SRP/PMR (3 respondents, 1.9%).

From a total of 156 respondents, in term of job title, majority of them are Junior Police Officer (83 respondents, 53.25%). Other job categories are Senior Police Officer (38 respondents, 24.4%) and General Police Officer (35 respondents, 22.4%).

Majority of the respondents are Malay (128 respondents, 82.1%) follow by Chinese (15 respondents, 9.6%) Indian (7 respondents, 4.5%), and other race (6 respondents, 3.8%).

For working experience, 49 respondents have more than five (5) years of working experience (31.4%), 37 respondents 11 to 15 years (23.7%), 25 respondents 16 to 20 years of working experience (16%), 24 respondents 5 to 10 years of working experience (15.4%) and 21 respondents less than 5 years of working experience (13.5%).

The study was focused on the Integrity Training Programme which was conducted before February 2018. 105 respondents were attended the programme 1 time (67.3%), 29 respondents attended more than 3 times (18.6%), 16 respondents were attended 2 time (10.3%) and 6 respondents were attended 3 times.

All of the respondents were attended at least six months after the programme. 80 respondents were attended on November 2017 (51.28%) and 76 respondents were attended on January 2018 (48.72%). This will help to ensure that the respondents respond to the questionnaire correctly.

### 4.3 Reliability Analysis

In table 4.3 the reliability of the questionnaire was tested by using Cronbach's Alpha or called Alpha Coefficient to show the internal consistency of the questionnaire among 156 respondents. It involved the independent variables in trainee characteristics, training design and work environment. As for dependent variables in training effectiveness the focus is on the ethical behavior at workplace.

Table 4.3  
*Reliability Analysis – Cronbach Alpha*

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
<b>Independent Variable</b>		
Trainee Characteristics	10	.907
Training Design	13	.951
Work Environment	5	.912
<b>Dependent Variable</b>		
Training Effectiveness	16	.871

Based on the reliability analysis for the study, the alpha coefficients are reported in Table 4.3 above. The independent variables which registered with the lowest value is trainee characteristics, which has a value of 0.907. The rest are valued at 0.951 for training design and 0.912 for work environment. The dependent variables are valued satisfactorily where 0.871.

#### 4.4 Descriptive Analysis

After passing the validity and reliability analysis, the items were then averaged. The mean was applied as a measure of central tendency, which indicated that all items in the variables were above their midpoint level as shown in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5.

Table 4.4  
*Descriptive Analysis Statistics of Independent Variables*

<b>Independent Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<i>Trainee Characteristic</i>		
I am very much excited about attending this training programme.	3.14	0.686
I have the prior knowledge and skill about integrity before attending this training programme.	3.12	0.739
I am confident that I can succeed in this training programme.	3.32	0.709
I believe that I can perform better on the job after attending this training programme.	3.51	0.774
I attended this training program willingly.	3.38	0.868
My job has provided me opportunities to learn knowledge and skills related to this training programme.	3.55	0.730
I was informed the objectives of this training programme.	3.41	0.872
I was interested in learning the training material that was covered in this training programme.	3.49	0.723
I had learnt as much as I can from this training programme.	3.40	0.660
I was motivated to learn the training material that was emphasized in this training programme.	3.41	0.717

<i>Training Design</i>		
I am fully aware and understand the training objectives.	3.41	0.641
All topics covered according to training objectives.	3.34	0.723
The training programme has achieved its objectives.	3.35	0.706
The training program assists me to acquire new skills and information	3.58	0.568
The training program assists me to change my attitudes.	3.47	0.667
The training program assists me to solve problems at work.	3.40	0.630
The training program was conducted at a conducive location for achieving training objectives.	3.42	0.633
I am understand the content of the training.	3.33	0.702
I was interested to learn the topics covered in the training.	3.40	0.660
The training content has positive learning effects.	3.48	0.637
Training activities meet my personal needs of individual.	3.46	0.636
Training content was relevant to my job.	3.42	0.601
The content has successfully produced linked the theoretical and practical parts of the training.	3.50	0.574
<i>Work Environment</i>		
The general atmosphere during this training program enhance the learning process.	3.42	0.663
The nature of my work allows me to attend this training program without interruption.	3.37	0.720
The seating arrangement of the classroom for this training program was well arranged.	3.48	0.667
My supervisor gives recognition to those who apply new knowledge and skills to their work after attending this training programme.	3.33	0.674



My supervisor encourages employees to attend this training programme.	3.11	0.687
---	------	-------

All the 30 items of three (3) independent variables have means more than three ( $M > 3.00$ ). In terms of standard deviation, all variables exhibited satisfactory deviations from the mean values. This indicates that there is sufficient variability captured in the variables.

Table 4.5:  
*Descriptive Analysis of Dependent Variables*

Dependent Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
<i>Ethical Behavior at Workplace</i>		
I am still behaving unethically after attending the integrity training programme.	2.53	1.297
My unethical behavior is influenced by other colleagues.	2.75	1.313
I will execute the instructions received without question even against the rules.	2.71	1.223
I am trustful in carrying out the responsibilities.	3.43	0.820
I always get full support from my supervisors and colleagues while doing the job.	3.46	0.731
I always perform my duties accordingly to the rules and procedures set out.	3.53	0.666
I have a good personality.	3.53	0.749
I am always on time.	3.54	0.721
I can work in team.	3.70	0.666
I have a high level of accountability for the task given.	3.58	0.819
I am always efficient in doing my job.	3.51	0.775
I am always proactive in doing my job.	3.52	0.749

I am always committed in doing my job.	3.53	0.774
I am always open minded in doing my job.	3.62	0.765
I always discuss with my supervisor on the task given.	3.64	0.787
I have never outcast the duty for my personal interest.	3.49	0.774

The total mean and standard deviation on training effectiveness [ $M = (3.38)$ ;  $SD = (.51)$ ]. 13 of 16 items of dependent variable have mean more than three ( $M > 3.00$ ). In terms of standard deviation, all variables exhibited satisfactory deviations from the mean values. This indicates that there is sufficient variability captured in the variables.

## 4.5 Inferential Analysis

### 4.5.1 Correlation Analysis

#### 4.5.1.1 Introduction

Correlation analysis is a coefficient that describes the strength of the association between two variables. Pearson correlations coefficient is a common tool that applied for many studies especially the study that using continuous variables for their data. The value of Pearson correlation coefficient can be positive relationship or negative relationship among the variables ranging between -1 to +1. The perfect relationship denoted by 1 or -1, the value of 0 indicates that no relationship between the two variables.

#### 4.5.1.2 Discriminant and Predictive Validity

Two-tailed Pearson correlation tests were employed to assess discriminant validity of the variables. All independent variables were found not to be too highly correlated among themselves ( $< 0.6$ ), which is the prerequisite condition for removing concerns about multicollinearity problems prior to conducting multiple regression analysis in the subsequent section.

Table 4.6:

*Discriminant and Predictive Validity: Correlation Coefficients (n = 156)*

	Training Effectiveness	Trainee Characteristic	Training Design	Work Environment
Training Effectiveness	-			
Trainee Characteristic	.303**	-		
Training Design	.442**	.678**	-	
Work Environment	.294**	.496**	.836**	-

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.6 shows that all three (3) independent variables, namely trainee characteristics, training design and work environment are significantly related to training effectiveness. Training design has moderate relationship with training effectiveness ( $r=0.442$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Meanwhile, trainee characteristics ( $r=0.303$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and work environment ( $r=0.294$ ,  $p<.001$ ) are found to have weak but definite relationship with training environment.

## **4.5.2 Regression Analysis**

### **4.5.2.1 Introduction**

The regression analysis was used to find out the factors that influence the training effectiveness. The research questions were tested by means of multiple regressions.

### **4.5.2.2 Assessing Statistical Assumptions**

The analyses were verified that they are free from any violations towards assumptions of least squares procedures used in multiple regression analyses. The rationale behind to conduct diagnostic procedures is to ensure whether the errors in prediction are the result of the absence of relationship among the factors that affect the training effectiveness which are trainee characteristics, training design and work environment or some nature of the data that could not be detected by the regression model.

Multiple regressions were conducted to examine whether the independent variables (trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment) have any significant effect to dependent variable (training effectiveness on ethical behavior at workplace).

Table 4.7  
*Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)*

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.733	3	2.911	13.894	.000
	Residual	31.846	152	0.210		
	Total	40.579	155			

(Significant at 0.05, significance level at  $p < 0.05$ )

Table 4.7 shows that the F-value ( $F = 13.894$ ) found to be significant at  $p < 0.05$ . This constructs that the regression model used in this study was adequate or in another word, the model was fit.

Table 4.8  
*Model Summary*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.464 <sup>a</sup>	0.215	0.200	0.45773

The model summary of multiple regression as shown in Table 4.8 above exhibits and explains the regression test had presented an inference with R square of 0.215. Approximately 21.5% variations of training effectiveness on ethical behavior at workplace were caused by trainee characteristics, training design and work environment. This means that there are other factors associated to training effectiveness, which represented 78.5%.

Table 4.9  
*Regression Results of Training Effectiveness*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.903	0.261		7.288	0.000
<b>Trainee Characteristics</b>	-0.027	0.092	-0.029	-0.291	0.771
<b>Training Design</b>	0.677	0.157	0.679	4.315	0.000
<b>Work Environment</b>	-0.226	0.116	-0.259	-1.948	0.053

Table 4.9 summarizes the overall Beta values for each variable in the training effectiveness dimensions. The Beta value for trainee characteristics is indicated as Beta=-0.029,  $p=0.771>0.05$  and work environment Beta value =-0.259 and  $p=0.053>0.05$ . These show that training design has the highest Beta value of 0.679 compared to the rest of the dimensions which further tell us that the most significant dimension to training effectiveness among all three (3) training effectiveness dimensions is training design.

#### **4.6 Summary**

This study uses the primary data, collected in Royal Malaysia Police. There are three (3) factors represent independent variables (trainee characteristics, training design and work environment). On the other hand, training effectiveness representing dependent variables with regard to Kirkpatrick training evaluation model (Kirkpatrick, 1975,1979, 2005).



## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter concludes the writing of this study by recapitulating the study's findings, presenting comprehensive discussions and highlighting the important implications of this study. This chapter will also include the discussion the relationship between the training determinants such as trainee characteristic, training objectives, training content and work environment and training effectiveness on ethical behavior at workplace. The discussion will be outlined by discussing the significant relationship and insignificant relationship with all the variables. Lastly, this chapter will recap the recommendations for future research and conclude the overall study.

#### **5.2 Recapitulation of the Study's Findings**

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that have a significant relationship to training effectiveness. The study also answered the research questions and research objectives. Hence, this study has identified the extent of factors related to training effectiveness which are the ethical behavior at workplace. It is also looking at how the training effectiveness is measured or gauged and lastly identified the gap exists between what is needed and what is good to have. Respondents for this research were the officers from JIPS, Royal Malaysia Police. This is because, JIPS officers is directly involved in integrity matters such as governance, education, prevention and



compliance activities at Royal Malaysia Police. Most of the HRD programmes were designed to meet operational and organization needs.

The independent variables are the trainee characteristic, training objectives, training content and working environment. On the other hand, the dependent variables are the training effectiveness. Training effectiveness was measured in ethical behavior at workplace. The study looked at the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables.

The respondents selected were the Senior Police Officer, Junior Police Officer and General Officer. The Integrity Training Programme was selected in this study since this programme was directly related to all respondents in Royal Malaysia Police. The survey had been distributed through JIPS training unit by hardcopy. They had assisted the researcher to distribute the questionnaires to the targeted respondents. The information obtained was based on self-reports as this is believed to be a reliable source of information (Merzoff, 1987).

### **5.3 Discussions**

The results of this study have answered the research objectives. The variables involved in training dimensions provide useful perspectives about the impact of training effectiveness on ethical behavior in the context of Royal Malaysia Police. It has been proven that trainee characteristic, training design and working environment are related to training effectiveness which the result shows significant dependent variables and independent variables. The findings of this research indicate that good training design is reflected in the ethical behavior at workplace.

Therefore, this section presents the research analysis which is based on descriptive analysis and inferential analysis.

Descriptive Analysis was performed to discover the respondents' profile by looking at the frequency and percentage as well as the response rate towards the research. Additionally, information such as mean and standard deviation is also obtained from this analysis. Inferential analysis, the correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variables.

Table 5.1

*The result of each objective is reviewed by referring to the previous literature*

Objectives	Findings
To determine the relationship between trainee characteristic and training effectiveness	Achieved
To determine the relationship between training design and training effectiveness	Achieved
To determine the relationship between work environment and training effectiveness	Achieved

### **5.3.1 Objective 1: To determine the relationship between trainee characteristic and training effectiveness**

In order for the training to be effective, the trainee must have the initiative to attend the programme, have the basic knowledge and skills before attending the programme, enjoy the training and be positive. S/he must also ensure that the training objectives are met. Without the trainee initiative, knowledge and good attitude towards integrity training, the training will not be effective. For example, if the integrity training

programme is good but the participant late for class and not putting attention to the training, the training will be a waste to him/her. At the same time, the organization will also loose resources (ie, operation resources) by sending de-motivated employee.

Clark (1991) and Noe (1986, 2005) have stated that motivated participants will be more active in the training. As such, they will give positive feedback and the training will be effective. Also, if the training programme run smoothly, the trainee will perceive that other factors will no effect to the effectiveness of the training. This finding support the study made by Leslie (1991, 1997). Leslie (1991,1997) highlighted that the three main factors for effective training were approach, method and equipment use for the training. In addition, employees who are satisfied with their jobs will be more likely to exhibit more discretionary behaviors that benefit the organization than those who are not (Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002; Sutherland, 2009). In this study, the result indicates that there is a positive and significant relationship between trainee characteristic and training effectiveness.

### **5.3.2 Objective 2: To determine the relationship between training design and training effectiveness raining design and training effectiveness**

Training design in this study refers to training objectives and training content. Training objectives emphasizes on the understanding of training objectives, topics covered, achievement of training objectives, acquisition of new skills, change of attitudes and conducive location for training. Training content, on the other hand, focuses on the understanding of the training content, interest in learning new topics in training, training activities, relevance to the job and the linkage of both the theoretical and practical parts of the training. According to Harry J. Martin (2009), training design is

a major contributor in order to have a sustainable impact on trainee behavior; it must be designed to meet the needs of both the trainees and the organization. Training should also include clear programme goals that align the training with the job performance before an organization design in order to establish the credibility of the training programme. This study supports what Yupawadee, Lesley and Graham (2008) explained; that the training goal is one of the elements to the success of training effectiveness, goal-matching between training design and training effectiveness to enhance job performance. In this study, the result indicates that there is a positive and significant relationship between training design and training effectiveness.

### **5.3.3 Objective 3: To determine the relationship between work environment and training effectiveness**

To answer the last research question, there is positive relation between the work environment and the training effectiveness. The organization policy and management team will influence the ethical working attitude. In order to boost the learning and training, the support from the organization commitment from trainee must be there. The supervisor cannot force the subordinate to use the specific method. It is up to the employee to use whatever method that they think suitable to solve the problem. What the organization interested to see is the result or whether the problem is solved or not. Again, it is solely up to employees whether they want to apply what they have learnt in the training.

This finding is supported by Saiyadain and Juhary (1995) where the top management attitude is important for training to be effectively. In line with this finding, Smith and Hayton (1999) have addressed in their study the important of senior management

commitment to training. The company must ensure certain amount of money to be budgeted yearly (Castrillion & Cantorna, 2005; McEvoy et.al, 1997; Shutte et.al. 1999; Tsai & Tai, 2003).

## **5.4 Recommendations**

### **5.4.1 Identifying Objectives of Training**

The Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is a critical part of determining the objectives of the training. It is important for the organization to TNA for the staff. The purpose of the TNA is to assess an organization's training needs in order to find any gaps between the knowledge, skills and abilities of the staff that will prevent the organization from meeting its objectives. The TNA is the first step in the establishment of a training design. It is used as the foundation for determining the training design which will consist of objectives and content which are relevant to the needs of the staff.

### **5.4.2 The Relevance of Integrity Training Programme**

The management has to support and approve all the integrity training programmes that are relevant to the staff. The relevance of the training may assist employees by enhancing their knowledge, skills and abilities. At the same time, the management also needs to organize training according to the specific needs of the employees. On the other hand, in the context of Royal Malaysia Police, the management must also conduct external training, this is to avoid from having the employees always leaving the training room to do certain tasks or getting call from the office. Therefore, in this case, trainees cannot gain much from the training itself.

### **5.4.3 Integrity Training Plan**

Training is a continuous learning process in the context of the organization. The purpose of a training programme is to sharpen the knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees. Integrity training calendars are best suited to repeatable and regular demand, such as refresher skills training for employees and for new recruits joining the organization. In these cases, review what training is required on a regular basis and look at what new recruits need to be proficient at soon after they join an organization.

It is such a good start for the management to come out with the policy making it compulsory for all staff to attend integrity training programme at least twice a year and that the training attended be given due consideration during each and every performance review. A penalty or even punishment could also be imposed on anyone who fails to turn up for training as instructed by a superior.

### **5.5 Limitation of Research**

This study only focuses on the officers in JIP, Royal Malaysia Police among the 156 sample sizes. Perhaps, after this, it can be conducted at every department of Royal Malaysia Police. This research was conducted within a three months period. Maybe another study can be extended for up to six months to ensure that the researcher is able to find more sources to support the study.

The findings of this study hopefully can be used to further promote public trust and confidence and strengthen external credibility of enforcement officers especially RMP who have been subject of criticism for the past few years.

However, this study is subject to several limitations. Based on the questionnaires, respondents were asked to rate the scores on a seven point Likert scale for all the variables, which will lead them to give their personal judgment with bias and lack of accuracy. In addition, the sample of the study is RMP employees that represent the public officials in Malaysia. However, there are other government agencies and departments that could represent the public sector. Despite some limitations, this study makes a significant contribution to the current academic literature, as well as offering points for consideration for policy makers in the Royal Malaysian Police.

### **5.6 Recommendation for Future Research**

This study has shown the relationship between trainee characteristics, training design and work environment on training effectiveness. By referring to Kirk Patrick's Model, it involves ethical behavior evaluation. Therefore, by looking at the variables used in this study, it can be found that trainee characteristic, training design, working environment and training effectiveness contributes to the change of ethical behavior at workplace. Perhaps the next researcher can focus on the other factors such as an organization and training delivery. The researcher also needs to suggest motivational factors towards training that can also be included; this is to discover which factors would attract employees to attend training.

### **5.7 Conclusion**

Although this study has a couple limitations and room for future research, the findings of this study still have their own significance. The findings can be used by any industry

when considering their effort towards training. The evaluation of training effectiveness is very important so that the amount of energy and money invested are worthwhile.

Results from this study have answered all the research questions and research objectives that been developed earlier. This study showed that there were some factors such as trainee characteristic, training design and working environment that affect the ethical behavior at workplace. This finding was quite interesting since behavior is one the important elements in training effectiveness (Kirkpatrick, 1975, 1996, 2005; Noe, 1986; Pau, 2001).

In summary, the overall results were not positive enough which means that there are other factors that affect the training effectiveness. However, the findings of this study have the potential to be generalized to other organization. The result of this study exposed new findings about the contextual factors that affect the training effectiveness in the JIP in Royal Malaysia Police.

This study demonstrates that trainee characteristics and training design as well as work environment are dimensions of training that impact on the training effectiveness (ethical behavior). Therefore, the results of the data analyses are discussed thoroughly in this chapter in order to see the relationship between the independent variables (trainee characteristic, training design and work environment) and the dependent variables (training effectiveness) This study comes out with a conclusion that can be used to better understand this topic, together with the present literature. In addition, suggestions are proposed in this study for future research in the concept of trainee characteristic, training design and working environment on training effectiveness that will assist in HRM theory and also in the organizational context on ethical behavior at workplace.



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☐ UNTUK MAKLUMAN

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YBhg. TAN SRI DATO' SRI MOHAMAD FUZI BIN HARUN) IG  
KETUA POLIS NEGARA  
POLIS DIRAJA MALAYSIA

### PERMOHONAN KEBENARAN MENJALANKAN KAJIAN PENYELIDIKAN SARJANA DI POLIS DIRAJA MALAYSIA (PDRM)

Didoakan semoga YBhg. Tan Sri Dato' Sri dianugerahkan kesihatan yang baik dan di bawah Taufiq serta Hidayah Allah *Subhaanahu Wata'ala* dalam menerajui Polis Diraja Malaysia (PDRM).

2. Merujuk kepada perkara di atas, saya merupakan pelajar Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) yang sedang mengikuti pengajian dalam *Master of Human Resource Management* secara separuh masa. Bagi memenuhi keperluan pengajian ini, pihak saya ingin memohon kebenaran daripada pihak YBhg. Tan Sri Dato' Sri untuk menjalankan penyelidikan di PDRM.

3. Maklumat permohonan saya adalah seperti berikut:

Nama :	Judlifah Binti Mohd Jamil
No. KP :	790409-14-5408
No. Tel :	03-62092085/013-3625257
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Tajuk Kajian :	"The Effectiveness Of Integrity Training Programme In Royal Malaysia Police (Kebekerkesanan Program Latihan Integriti di Polis Diraja Malaysia)"
Sampel kajian :	Pegawai Kanan Polis, Pegawai Rendah Polis dan Pegawai Awam yang telah menghadiri program latihan integriti

4. Bersama-sama surat ini saya sertakan surat pengesahan pelajar untuk menjalankan penyelidikan dari pihak UUM untuk makluman dan rujukan pihak YBhg. Tan Sri Dato' Sri.

5. Sehubungan dengan itu, besarlah harapan agar pihak YBhg. Tan Sri Dato' Sri memberi kebenaran untuk menjalankan penyelidikan ini.

Segala perhatian dan jasa baik pihak YBhg. Tan Sri Dato' Sri diucapkan jutaan terima kasih.

Sekian, terima kasih.

Wassalam.

Yang benar,

*Judlifah Binti Mohd Jamil*  
JUDLIFAH BINTI MOHD JAMIL



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#### "MUAFAKAT KEDAH"

Our Ref : UUM/UUMKL/P-39/133

Date : 20th March 2018

#### KETUA POLIS NEGARA

#### COLLECTION OF DATA FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

We are pleased to inform you that the following individual is UUM Kuala Lumpur student who is presently pursuing his Master of Human Resource Management. She is required to collect data from your organization as a requirement for the BPM269912 Research Paper courses that she is pursuing this semester. She is conducting a research entitled "The Effectiveness of Integrity Training Programmes in Royal Malaysia Police (Kebekerkesanan Program Latihan di Polis Diraja Malaysia)" under the supervision of Madam Norizan Binti Azizan.

No.	Name	Matric No.	I/D No.
1.	JUDLIFAH BINTI MOHD JAMIL	819373	790409145408

Since she has chosen your organization as her assignment, we would be most grateful if you could render all assistance to her to carry out the project successfully.

Please be informed that the data collected is purely for academic purposes and we assure you that all information or data will be kept strictly confidential.

We really appreciate your kindness and cooperation in the above matter.

Thank you.

"SCHOLARSHIP, VIRTUE AND SERVICE"

Sincerely yours,

**DR. AHMAD RIZAL BIN MAZLAN**  
Director  
Universiti Utara Malaysia  
Kuala Lumpur (UUMKL)

Universiti Pengurusan Terkemuka  
The Eminent Management University

